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### ABSTRACT

This mcnograph presents preliminary cross-tabulation analyses of the 1979 National Longitudinal Survey of Youth Labor Market Experience of 12,693 youth of ages 14-21 who will be interviewed annually for at least five years. (Hispanic: non-Hispanic black: and ncn-Hispanic, non-black, poor youth were oversampled.) Fach of the twenty-four topics studied is the focus of a chapter. Chapters address (1) demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of the youth in this age cohort: (2) youth employment status: (3) youth employment conditions (jobs): (4) youth employment patterns (1978): (5) government sponsored employment and training programs: (6) working students: (7) youth not in school or the labor force: (8) job turnovers and job leavers: (9) job search activities: (10) perceptions of discrimination and barriers to employment: (11) willingness to work: (12) health status of youth: (13) attitudes toward school: (14) educational aspirations and expectations: (15) experience of high school students according to variations in their curriculum: (16) high school dropouts: (17) college student population: (18) first job after leaving school: (19) desire for occupational training: (20) aspirations for age 35: (21) ideal, desired, and expected fertility: (22) attitudes toward women working, fertility expectations, and their relation to educational and occupational expectations: (23) knowledge of world of work: and (24) influences on life decisions. Appendixes include information on sampling methodology and the approximately 175-page questionnaire used. (YIP)



## PATHWAYS TO THE FUTURE:

## A LONGITUDINAL STUDY OF YOUNG AMERICANS

Preliminary Report:

Youth and the Labor Market--1979

by

Michael E. Borus, Joan E. Crowley, Russell W. Rumberger, Richard Santos, and David Shapiro

Center for Human Resource Research

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## OVERVIEW

Despite the vast array of statistics and analyses addressed to the youth developmental process, and particularly its employment aspects, many critical questions remain unanswered. Youth employment issues are interrelated with education, family life, social-psychological growth and many other factors. Status and change factors are difficult to measure for youth. They also fluctuate dramatically and are cumulative in nature. In other words, to gain full understands, g of the youth experience, it is necessary to have broad-ranging longitudinal information with questions which have been tested and have demonstrated applicability to youth and which measure both attitudes and status.

This volume represents a first and preliminary report from a National Longitudinal Survey (NLS) of a representative sample of 12,693 youth age 14-21 who will be interviewed annually for at least five years. The new survey builds on the lessons from the previous Department of Labor-funded surveys of youth, refining and supplementing the questions and adjusting the sample in order to add to the knowledge development from the earlier surveys. Hispanic, black and poor youth are oversampled. In the case of Hispanics, this will provide the first extensive information ever available concerning their transition experience. Extra effort is devoted to determining employment and training program participation, as well as vocational training in school, so that the impacts of these activities can be better addressed. There is a special panel of military recruits so that they can be compared with other youth who do not enlist. A range of additional questions are introduced to "tighten the net" of information compared with previous surveys.

This report does not scratch the surface of what can be learned from the data already collected in the first interview. Further, the real payoff comes when experience in subsequent years can be compared to variables in the first year. The present analysis was completed under incredibly tight timeframes, precluding significant detail and more sophisticated analytical techniques which will be possible in later reports. Despite these limitations, this report demands careful scrutiny. Its major findings are of critical importance in the formultion of youth policies for the 1980s:

1. More youth want to work than has been assumed based on the Current Population Survey (CPS). In particular the proportion of students combining or wanting to combine work with education is much larger according to this NLS than according to the CPS, and the disparity is especially great for black students. It has been documented in the past that employment status responses differ significantly when the head of household is interviewed (as in the CPS) and when the youth is asked directly (as in the NLS). Since job search and desire reflect attitudes and behaviors which might not be known by the head of the household, there are reasonable arguments in favor of the direct youth



In the survey period, the NLS labor force participation rate for 16- to 21-year-olds was 11.0 percentage points higher than the CPS estimate; the unemployment rate was 5.2 percentage points higher; and the employment/population ratio 5.7 percentage points more. For blacks, the differentials were greater--19.1, 10.7 and 6.8 percentage points respectively. The differences were larger for teenagers and for students. The NLS participation rate was 15.8 percentage points greater than the CPS estimate for those youth whose primary activity was school, compared to only 3.4 percentage points higher for those youth with other primary activities. For black students, the NLS measured participation rate was 27.5 percentage points higher than the CPS.

- The employment problems of youth are more severe than has been assumed. The unemployment rate as measured by the NLS was 19.3 percent in the spring of 1979 compared to 14.1 percent in the CPS. The ratio of youth (16-21) to adult (22 and older) unemployment was 4.7 if the NLS youth rate is used in the numerator as compared to 3.4 if the CPS rate is used. With higher labor force participation rates as well as greater probabilities of joblessness among participants, the NLS estimate of the number of unemployed 16- to 21-year-olds is 62 percent above the number estimated by the CPS. For blacks and females the differentials are greater, with the NLS yielding double the number of unemployed as the CPS. The race and sex disparities which make the youth employment problem so inimical are, thus, even worse than previously assumed. The gap between the unemployment rates of black and white male youth is 15.7 percentage points in the CPS; for females, the black/white differential is 15.8 percentage points. The gaps widen to 21.9 and 22.7 percentage points in the NLS. The jobless rate among in-school blacks is only 36.9 percent according to the CPS but 55.4 percent according to the NLS, reflecting that black students want to work almost as much as whites, are looking for work even though their household heads may not know it, but cannot find jobs.
- 3. The racial differentials reflected in measured rates of employment and unemployment are massive, but they are only the most visible dimensions of relative deprivation. In almost every aspect of their labor market experience, black and Hispanic youth are significantly worse off than white youth:

	Whites	<u>cks</u>	<u>Hispanic</u>
Unemployment Rate Students Nonstudents	16.1% 17.9 14.4	.8% 41.0 33.9	22.9% 28.5 18.7
Employment Rate Students Nonstudents	60.8 51.6 72.6	39.8 31.7 50.0	47.8 37.8 57.9
Percent Upper Level White Collar or Craft Jobs Male Female	21.3% 7.9	13.5% 4.4	19.6% 3.2
Mean Hourly Wages Males Females	\$3.84 3.07	\$3.57 3.24	\$3.70 3.22
Percent of Employed Who Commute 5 Minutes or Less	36%	21%	26%
Mean Score on Global Index of Job Satisfaction Male Female .	3.13 3.18	3.01 3.06	3.00 3.13
Mean Number of Weeks Employed in 1978 Male Female	31.9 26.6	21.1 16.1	26.2 18.9
Percent with Two or More Spells of Nonemployment in 1978 Male Female	31.7% 31.0	45.5% 42.8	33.3 <sup>2</sup> 37.0
Laid Off Last Jōb Male Female	20.8% 17.3	26.4% 20.6	24.5° 20.6



The supply side explanations sometimes used to gainsay the seriousness of youth labor market problems -- that youth have high "reservation wages" and will not take available jobs, that they are not really interested in work and that they cause their own problems by hopping from job to job--are deflated by the NLS findings. The higher labor force participation rate reported by youth is evidence that they are more actively searching for work than has been estimated from interviews with family heads. Further, the evidence suggests that the majority of these young people are not unsuccessful because of inflated expectations. The NLS asked youth if they would be willing to work at various wage rates (\$2.50, \$3.50, and \$5.00 per hour) in various jobs (working in a factory, at a supermarket checkout counter, in a hamburger place, as a cleaning person, washing dishes, in neighborhood improvement and away from home in a national forest or park). For each of these jobs, more than a fifth of youth reported that they would be willing to work at \$2.50 an hour (\$.40 per hour less than the minimum wage at that point in time). For instance, two-fifths of 14-and 15-year olds, a fifth of youth age 16 and 17, an eighth of these age 18 and 19 and a twelfth of 20- through 22-year-olds reported that they would take a job washing dishes for \$2.50 per hour. For every job except working away from home in a national forest or park, minorities were more likely to hypothetically accept \$2.50 per hour jobs than nonminorities. Students were more willing to accept most jobs at \$2.50 an hour than nonstudents. In all seven job categories, a larger percentage of unemployed youth were willing to work at \$2.50 per hour than youth not in the labor force, who were, in turn, more willing than employed youth to work at these wages. For instance, 28 percent of jobless youth expressed a willingness to wash dishes for \$2.50 per hour compared to 9 percent of employed youth. Nearly threefifths of the unemployed would be dishwashers for \$3.50 per hour compared to only a fourth of the employed youths.

Job attachment of youth is admittedly tenuous. Almost half of youth with employment histories in 1978, had more than one job during the year and only about one-third were employed throughout the year. Youth labor market and job attachment is clearly less stable than that of adults, and periods of joblessness are frequently related to this volatility. Minorities were less likely to be continuously employed throughout the year and more likely to have experienced multiple spells of nonemployment. Some have concluded from this evidence that youth in general and minority youth in particular are inherently unstable, that they leave jobs "at the drop of a hat," and that they are to a large extent to blame for their higher unemployment.

Youth are volatile, but the reasons for job-leaving do not suggest that many choose voluntary joblessness. Among 18-and 19-year-olds who had left a job since January 1, 1978, for



instance, a fifth were laid off the last job; an eighth quit for better jobs; a fourth left because the job interfered with school or due to illness, armed forces entrance, change in location and the like. Only 5 percent were discharged or fired, a fifth left because employment conditions or wages were unacceptable and a tenth for unspecified other reasons. For black males, the percentage laid off or affected by program termination was 38 percent compared to 25 percent for whites.

5. The major barriers to employment as perceived by youth are discrimination and the lack of transportation. Over half of youth cite age, race or sex discrimination as impediments to getting a good job. Forty-five percent view age discrimination as a barrier; 21 percent of blacks and 18 percent of Hispanics feel they are hampered by race discrimination; 13 percent of women perceive sex discrimination.

The lack of adequate transportation and the mismatch in the location of jobs and workers are also major barriers. Where work is parttime, and where wages are low, long or expensive commutes do not make economic sense. Employed youth were asked how long it usually takes them to get home from work. A third are within 5 minutes of work and only 15 percent travel for 30 minutes or more compared to less than one-fifth and one-fourth respectively for the total population. Among high school students, 46 percent of those employed commute no more than 5 minutes and two-thirds are less than 15 minutes from home. Minorities who work have to spend more time commuting--27 percent travel more than 30 minutes compared to 13 percent of whites. Lack of transportation is cited as an impediment to getting a good job by 30 percent of youth, including 43 percent of black males.

6. Massive changes have occurred in the attitudes and aspirations of young females relative to work, education and childbearing. These changes have not been matched by labor market developments or changes in the attitudes of young males, suggesting an increasing degree of "sex role discordance."

In the 1979 NLS, only a fourth of 14-22 year old females in the survey reported that they wanted to be exclusively homemakers at age 35 compared to more than three-fifths of female respondents the same age in 1968. Conversely, only one of eight young women in 1968 expected to be working at age 35 and employed in a professional, technical or managerial occupation. More than two of five had such expectations in 1979. Finally, young women in 1971 who were 17-22 expected to have a mean of 2.71 children; in 1979, they expected only 2.40.

Realities have not shifted as rapidly as attitudes and aspirations. While only a fourth of 14- to 22-year-olds expect to be homemakers at age 35, two-fifths of women age 25-34 are outside the labor force. The 11 percent of young women wanting to be employed as



professionals, managers and technical workers in 1968 roughly paralleled the 7 percent of adult women employed and working in these occupations; the 40 percent with this goal in 1979 far exceeded the 10 percent of adult women working in these occupations in 1979. Likewise, the gap between ideal number of children as perceived by young women, and the expected number of children (a lower figure) was three times as great in 1979 as in 1971. In 1979, males desired to have roughly the same number of children as females however the picture differed markedly for minorities. Among white males, the mean number of children desired was 6 percent less than among white females; black and Hispanic males desired 14 and 9 percent more children than black and Hispanic females. In terms of sex role values as judged by scores on a set of questions about the proper roles for women and wives--scores which are highly correlated with childbirth expectations, work and educational plans -- the percentage of males with nontraditional values was less than half the percentage of females. Hispanic females were less likely than black or white females to have nontraditional values, but they were nearly three times as likely as Hispanic males to have such values.

7. Employment and training programs are an important factor in mitigating the problems of disadvantaged and minority youth. Between January 1978 and the interview date (February-May 1, 1979), 2.25 million youth or 6.9 percent of all youth reported participation in these programs. Males were somewhat more likely to have been served than females (7.2 percent in the last year compared to 6.8 percent of females). The rate of participation of blacks was 17.4 percent, for Hispanics 12.2 percent, compared to 4.8 percent for whites. Dropouts were almost half again as likely as high school graduates to have been in these programs. The cumulative impact is significant, with more than two fifths of blacks participating during their teen years:

Percentage of 20- to 22-Year-Olds Ever Participated

All youth	17.5
Black youth	42.0
Hispanic youth	25.5
Males	16.9
Females	18.0
Dropouts	22.8
Low-Income (family	
income less than	
\$10,000)	22.7

The major thrust of these programs is work. Nine of ten participants were provided subsidized jobs. In the week of the NLS survey, employment in these programs accounted for one in seven jobs held by black youth age 16 to 19 and a tenth of these held by Hispanics. During 1978, 44 percent of black youth age 14-19 who held a job participated in an employment component of a manpower program as did 23 percent of young Hispanic workers.



These findings have obvious implications in the formulation of youth policies for the 1980s. They reinforce the evidence from other sources concerning the seriousness and magnitude of the youth employment problem. They signal important changes for young women and the tension this may create. The detailed information documents that racial disparities are pervasive in almost every dimension of labor market experience. And the findings suggest the importance of government programs and policies.

To aid in the interpretation of the findings and to suggest the further potential of the NLS, the appendices to this report include information on sampling methodology as well as the questionnaire which was utilized.

This volume is one of the products of the "knowledge development" effort implemented under the mandate of the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act of 1977. The knowledge development effort consists of hundreds of separate research, evaluation and demonstration activities which will result in literally thousands of written products. The activities have been structured from the outset so that each is self-standing but also interrelated with a host of other activities. The framework is presented in A Knowledge Development Plan for the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act of 1977, A Knowledge Development Plan for the Youth Initiatives Fiscal 1979 and Completing the Youth Agenda: A Plan for Knowledge Development, Dissemination and Application for Fiscal 1980.

Information is available or will be coming available from these various knowledge development efforts to help resolve an almost limitless array of issues. However, policy and practical application will usually require integration and synthesis from a wide array of products, which, in turn, depends on knowledge and availability of these products. A major shortcoming of past research, evaluation and demonstration activities has been the failure to organize and disseminate the products adequately to assure the full exploitation of the findings. The magnitude and structure of the youth knowledge development effort puts a premium on structured analysis and wide dissemination.

As part of its knowledge development mandate, therefore, the Office of Youth Programs of the Department of Labor will organize, publish and disseminate the written products of all major research evaluation and demonstration activities supported directly by or mounted in conjunction with OYP knowledge development efforts. Some of the same products may also be published and disseminated through other channels, but they will be included in the structured series of Youth Knowledge Development Reports in order to facilitate access and integration.

The Youth Knowledge Development Reports, of which this is one, are divided into 12 broad categories:



- 1. Knowledge Development Framework: The products in this category are concerned with the structure of knowledge development activities, the assessment methodologies which are employed, the measurement instruments and their validation, the translation of knowledge into policy, and the strategy for dissemination of findings.
- 2. Research on Youth Employment and Employability Development: The products in this category represent analys s of existing data, presentation of findings from new data sources, special studies of dimensions of youth labor market problems, and policy issue assessments.
- 3. Program Evaluations: The products in this category include impact, process and benefit-cost evaluations of youth programs including the Summer Youth Employment Program, Job Corps, the Young Adult Conservation Corps, Youth Employment and Training Programs, Youth Community Conservation and Improvement Projects and the Targeted Jobs Tax Credit.
- 4. Service and Participant Mix: The evaluations and demonstrations summarized in this category concern the matching of different types of youth with different service combinations. This involves experiments with work vs. work plus remediation vs. straight remediation as treatment options. It also includes attempts to mix disadvantaged and more affluent participants, as well as youth with older workers.
- 5. Education and Training Approaches: The products in this category present the findings of structured experiments to test the impact and effectiveness of various education and vocational training approaches including specific education methodologies for the disadvantaged, alternative education approaches and advanced career training.
- 6. Pre-Employment and Transition Services: The products in this category present the findings of structured experiments to test the impact and effectiveness of school-to-work transition activities, vocational exploration, job-search assistance and other efforts to better prepare youth for labor market success.
- 7. Youth Work Experience: The products in this category address the organization of work activities, their output, productive roles for youth and the impacts of various employment approaches.
- 8. Implementation Issues: This category includes cross-cutting analyses of the practical lessons concerning "how-to-do-it." Issues such as learning curves, replication processes and programmatic "batting averages" will be addressed under this category, as well as the comparative advantages of alternative delive agents.
- 9. Design and Organizational Alternatives: The products in this category represent assessments of demonstrations of alternative program and delivery arrangements such as consolidation, year-round preparation for summer programs, the use of incentives and multi-year tracking of individuals.



- 10. Special Needs Groups: The products in this category present findings on the special problems of and the programmatic adaptations needed for significant segments including minorities, young mothers, troubled youth, Indochinese refugees and the handicapped.
- ll. <u>Innovative Approaches</u>: The products in this category present the findings of those activities designed to explore new approaches. The subjects covered include the Youth Incentive Entitlement Pilot Projects, private sector initiatives, the national youth service experiment, and energy initiatives in weatherization, low-head hydroelectric dam restoration, wind-power and the like.
- 12. <u>Institutional Linkages</u>: The products in this category include studies of institutional arrangements and linkages as well as assessments of demonstration activities to encourage such linkages with education, volunteer groups, drug abuse agencies and the like.

In each of these knowledge development categories, there will be a range of discrete demonstration, research and evaluation activities focused on different policy, program and analytical issues. In turn, each discrete knowledge development project may have a series of written products addressed to different dimensions of the issue. For instance, all experimental demonstration projects have both process and impact evaluations, frequently undertaken by different evaluation agents. Findings will be published as they become available so that there will usually be a series of reports as evidence accumulates. organize these products, each publication is classified in one of the twelve broad knowledge development categories, described in terms of the more specific issue, activity or cluster of activities to which it is addressed, with an identifier of the product and what it represents relative to other products in the demonstrations. Hence, the multiple products under a knowledge development activity are closely interrelated and the activities in each broad cluster have significant interconnections.

The National Longitudinal Survey in general and this report specifically have implications for almost every other knowledge development category. They are particularly important relative to the other elements in the category research on youth employment and employability development, since many of the theoretical studies were pased on the previous panels of the National Longitudinal Survey. Particular attention should be given to the background papers of the Vice President's Task Force on Youth Employment, the analyses of the causes of youth employment by the National Bureau of Economic Research, and the papers from the Conference on Youth Unemployment—Its Measurement and Meaning. More detailed analyses of the new NLS will be published as completed. These will analyze a range of more specific topics.



The previous National Longitudinal Surveys were generally recognized as one of the most productive research investments of the Department of Labor, producing copious information on employment problems and related factors affecting significant segments of our population. It is anticipated that the new survey, building on the lessons from the previous NLS, will have an even greater information yield. Credit must be given to Dr. Howard Rosen, head of the Employment and Training Administration's Office of Research and Development who supported the first surveys and was instrumental in the development of this new panel.

ROBERT TAGGART Administrator Office of Youth Programs



### **PREFACE**

This is the first report on a cohort of youth, ages 14-21 on January 1, 1979. The cohort will be interviewed annually for the next five years and subsequent reports will refine the analyses presented here and trace the experiences of the youth over the period. The purpose of these surveys is to better understand the factors affecting success in the labor market and in life generally.

This cohort of youth is part of the National Longitudinal Surveys of Labor Force Experience (NLS), which were begun in 1966. Funding for the NLS comes from the Office of Research and Development and Office of Youth Programs, Employment and Training Administration, U.S. Department of Labor. We would like to acknowledge the great help of the directors of these offices, Dr. Howard Rosen and Dr. Robert Taggart, respectively. Supplemental funding for this cohort has been provided by the Office of the Secretary of Defense and the armed services.

Overall responsibility for the NLS rests with the Center for Human Resource Research, The Ohio State University, who design the questionnaires, analyze the data and provide the data to the public. Sample design and data collection for the youth cohort were conducted by the National Opinion Research Center (NORC). The Survey Director at NORC for this project is Celia Homans; sampling design was the responsibility of Martin Frankel. Other NORC senior staff who made substantial contributions were Mary Catherine Burich, Wendi Kreitman, and Karin Steinbrenner.

Many individuals at the Center for Human Resource Research have been engaged in this study in addition to the authors of this report. While it is not possible to acknowledge all of them we would particularly like to thank: Timothy Brown, Susan Carpenter, Stephanie Campbell, Ronald D'Amico, Thomas Daymont, Dennis Grey, Jean Haurin, Sherry McNamara, Stephen Hills, Rufus Milsted, Frank Mott, Ellen Mumma, Gilbert Nestel, Herbert Parnes, Patricia Shannon, Lois Shaw, Carol Sheets, and Kezia Sproat.

Michael E. Borus, Project Co-Director



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This report on the labor market experience of a cohort of youth, ages 14 to 21 is based on data from a special survey - the 1979
National Longitudinal Survey (NLS) of youth - funded by the Departments of Labor and Defense and conducted by the Center for Human Resource Research at Ohio State University. The young people in the survey will be interviewed annually for the next 5 years, enabling researchers to trace their labor market experiences and problems over time.

Many facets of youth labor market activity are covered in this volume, including current labor force status, hours and weeks worked, job search activities, and youth attitudes and aspirations towards school and their future labor market prospects.

Even though a wealth of useful information is covered here, it is important to note, as the authors emphasize, that the data are preliminary, not definitive. Thus, further refinements, reweighting, and more sophisticated analyses may change some of the results.

The NLS estimates of employment and unemployment differ somewhat from those obtained from the official figures published by the Labor Department. In particular, the NLS estimates of unemployment, especially among youth ages 16 to 17 whose major activity is attending school, are higher than the official published figures. There is much less variation between the two surveys' estimates of employment, though the NLS employment estimates are somewhat higher. Standard errors of the NLS data are not yet available to allow testing for the statistical significance of the differences.

Previous surveys of youth—the National Longitudinal Study of the High School Class of 1972, and the old National Longitudinal Survey begun in 1966—have also yielded different estimates of labor force status than the official figures. However, unlike the data presented in this monograph, the differences in unemployment rate estimates tended to be lower, marginal or nonexistent.

There are a number of possible reasons for the survey differences: these range from survey procedures, design and methodology, interviewer experience, questionnaire content and design, and whether the youth respond to the labor force questions themselves or the information is provided by another member of the family.

The fact that unlike labor force estimates have been found in different surveys raises, once again, the problem of obtaining precise measures of the labor force status of persons with very marginal and fluctuating attachment to the labor market. It is in this context that the Bureau of Labor Statistics is continuing its in-depth analysis of each youth survey and their differences from the official government survey to answer questions concerning the significance of any differences that exist, and to probe for the explanation(s) for such differences.

Office of Youth Programs



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### CHAPTER I

#### INTRODUCTION

The following monograph presents preliminary cross-tabular analyses of the 1979 National Longitudinal Survey of Youth Labor Market Experience.

These analyses represent only a "first cut" at the data. They should not be considered definitive in any way; further refinements of the data, reweighting, and more sophisticated multivariate analyses may yield other results.

Due, however, to the need of the Department of Labor for early indications of where the 1979 NLS Youth Survey may lead, we present below a series of descriptive chapters which seek to outline the nature of today's young people and their labor market experience.

## The Sample

The data are based on interviews with 12,693 youth who were born in the calendar years 1957 through 1964, i.e., persons who were fourteen to twenty-one as of January 1, 1979. A majority of these young people, 11,412, were selected from over 70,000 households which were screened for eligible youth. The respondents came from 160 different Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas and counties and were selected to provide a nationally representative sample. In addition, the sample was stratified by sex in order to yield approximately equal numbers of men and women, and there was oversampling of Hispanic; non-Hispanic black; and non-Hispanic, non-black, poor youth. As a result, the sample is composed of the following: 1,872 Hispanic youth (923 males, 949 females), 2,921 non-Hispanic black youth (1,443 males, 1,478 females), 1,671 nor-Hispanic, non-black youth who met the poverty criteria 1



(756 males, 915 females), and a cross section of 4,949 non-Hispanic, non-black youth (2,456 males, 2,493 females).<sup>2</sup>

An additional sample of 1,281 persons within the age group who were serving in the armed forces on September 30, 1978 were interviewed. These individuals were selected from a list provided by the armed forces. Unlike the sample of nonmilitary youth, the military sample included persons serving overseas as well as those serving in the United States. Further, this sample was selected to yield approximately two-thirds males and one-third females, a heavy overrepresentation of females. Fuller details of the sampling and weighting may be found in Appendix A.

In the analyses which follow, persons are identified by their characteristics when interviewed<sup>3</sup>--between the end of January, 1979 and August, 1979. The vast majority of interviews were completed during the months of February, March, April, and May. In some cases, where the variables being examined are likely to be affected by seasonality, individuals who were interviewed after May, 1979 are assumed to be distributed proportionately to those interviewed earlier. In addition, information on civilian or military status is as of the date of interview. Consequently, individuals who were selected from the military list but had become civilians are included

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Exceptions are racial-ethnic designation and sex, which were gathered in the household screeners conducted between September, 1978 and March, 1979 or from military records.



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>The poverty lines were taken from the Office of Management and Budget Guidelines and adjusted by the change in the Consumer Price Index between January and October, 1978.

 $<sup>^{2}\</sup>text{The cross section included youth from poverty households as well as nonpoor households.}$ 

in the civilian totals. Likewise, persons who were civilians when originally selected for the sample who had entered the military between the time of screening and interview are included as serving in the military. All individuals were assigned a weight indicating their probability of being selected and interviewed. These weights were used in generating the data presented here.

All information presented in this report is for the civilian noninstitutional population of youth in this age cohort, approximately 32,880,000 persons. The universe which applies is noted at the bottom of each table. Unless otherwise specified, persons not answering questions were distributed among the categories proportionately to those who responded.

## Characteristics of the Youth Population

Tables 1.1 to 1.3 provide the basic characteristics of the youth by race, sex, and age. <sup>4</sup> The tables show that approximately 4,520,000 or 13.7 percent of the youth age 14-21 on January 1, 1979 are black; 2,070,000 or 6.3 percent are of Hispanic origin; and the remaining 26,290,000 or 80.0 percent are neither Hispanic nor black. We labeled this last group as "white" although a small proportion, in the neighborhood of 2 percent, are Native Americans or of Asian or Pacific Island descent. The population is divided equally between males and females although we have a slight preponderance of females among the blacks and Hispanics and of males among the whites.

The age distribution of the population according to our data should be noted carefully. The sample weights were adjusted to Census Bureau estimates



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>There may be slight variations among the tables in this report due to rounding and truncation by the computer. Differences of one-tenth of a percent or 10,000 persons can be caused by these factors and should be ignored. Likewise, tables may not sum to the totals due to rounding.

Table 1.1 Selected Characteristics, by Race (in Thousands)

Characteristic	Bla	ck	Hispa	nic	Whi	te	То	ta 1
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Sex Female Male	2,312 2,203	51.2 48.8	1,043 1,031	50.3 49.7	13,087 13,204	49.8 50.2	16,442 16,438	50.0 50.0
Age 14-15 16-17 18-19 20-22	1,044 1,139 1,161 1,172	23.1 25.2 25.7 25.9	502 515 510 547	24.2 24.8 24.6 26.4	5,761 6,549 6,641 7,341	21.9 24.9 25.3 27.9	7,308 8,203 8,311 9,059	22.2 24.9 25.3 27.6
Region Northeast North Central South West	854 871 2,515 276	19.0 19.3 55.7 6.1	406 173 573 921	19.6 8.3 27.7 44.4	5,739 8,895 7,478 4,177	21.8 33.8 28.4 15.9	6,999 9,934 10,572 5,373	21.3 30.2 32.2 16.4
Enrollment status High school dropout High school student College student Nonenrolled high school graduate	763 2,415 504 832	16.9 53.5 11.2	498 1,043 221 313	24.0 50.3 10.6	3,012 12,816 4,207 6,256	11.5 48.7 16.0 23.8	4,272 16,275 4,933	13.0 49.5 15.0
Educational attainment 0 1-8 9-11 12 13 or more Not available		0.1 21.3 47.4 20.0 9.6 1.6	6 591 917 344 190 28	0.3 28.5 44.2 16.6 9.1	12 4,652 10,811 6,633 3,827 354	0.0 17.7 41.1 25.2 14.6	21 6,206 13,869 7,879 4,450 452	0.1 18.9 42.2 24.0 13.5
With a health limitation	279	6.2	108	5.2	1,660	6.3	2,047	6.2
Participated in government sponsored employment and training program Ever During 1978	1,421 733	31.5 16.2	439 225	21.2	2,444 1,173	9.3 4.5	4,304 2,131	13.1 6.5
Marital and family status Never married Married Separated, widowed, divorced	4,223 210 80	93.5 4.7	1,771 248 56	85.4 11.9 2.7	23,268 2,664 359	88.5	29,264	89.0 9.5
alvorced	80	1.0	<u>।</u> ट्रा	İ	359	1.4	494	1.5

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Table 1.1 (continued)

Chamatanistia	B1a	ck	Hispanic `		White		Total	
Characteristic	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Has children	583	12.9	223	10.7	1,733	6.6	2,538	7.7
Family income Less than \$5,000 5,000-9,999 10,000-14,999 15,000-19,999 20,000-24,999 25,000-29,999 30,000-39,999 40,000 or more Not available	785 1,053 669 455 243 141 141 92	17.4 23.3 14.8 10.1 5.4 3.1 3.1 2.0 20.7	302 484 321 202 148 101 79 59 379	14.6 23.3 15.5 9.7 7.1 4.9 3.8 2.8 18.3	1,576 2,920 2,964 2,894 3,230 2,275 2,622 2,267 5,545	6.0 11.1 11.3 11.0 12.3 8.7 10.0 8.6 21.1	2,662 4,457 3,954 3,551 3,621 2,517 2,842 2,419 6,860	8.1 13.6 12.0 10.8 11.0 7.7 8.6 7.4 20.9
Employment status <sup>a</sup> Employed Unemployed Out of labor force Total	1,338 845 1,170 4,515		719 217 578 2,074	47.5 14.3 38.1 6.3	11,983 2,296 5,423 26,291	60.8 11.7 27.5 80.0	14,051 3,353 7,166 32,880	57.2 13.6 29.2 100.0

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>Only for persons who were 16-21 on the date of interview.

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979. (N = 32,880,000)



Table 1.2 Selected Charactistics, by Sex (in Thousands)

Channataniatia	Fem	ale	Ma	1e	Tot	
Characteristic	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Age 14-15 16-17 18-19 20-22	3,531 4,073 4,231 4,609	21.5 24.8 25.7 28.0	3,777 4,130 4,080 4,452	23.0 25.1 24.8 27.1	7,308 8,203 8,311 9,061	22.2 24.9 25.3 27.6
Region Northeast North Central South West	3,532 4,713 5,524 2,674	21.5 28.7 33.6 16.3	3,467 5,224 5,049 2,699	21.1 31.8 30.7 16.4	6,998 9,937 10,573 5,373	21.3 30.2 32.2 16.4
Enrollment status High school dropout High school student College student Nonenrolled high school graduate	2,130 7,772 2,463 4,078	12.9 47.3 15.0	2,143 8,503 2,470	13.0 51.7 15.0	4,273 16,275 4,933 7,401	13.0 49.5 15.0 22.5
Educational attainment 0 1-8 9-11 12 13 or more Not available	11 2,851 6,825 4,183 2,355 218	0.1 17.3 41.5 25.4 14.3 1.3	10 3,355 7,047 3,696 2,096 234	0.1 20.4 42.9 22.5 12.7	21 6,206 13,872 7,879 4,450 452	0.1 18.9 42.2 24.0 13.5
With a health limitation	1,254	7.6	792	4.8	2,047	6.2
Participated in government sponsored employment and training program Ever During 1978	2,126 ,019	12.9 6.2	2,177 1,113	13.3 6.8	4,304 2,131	13.1 6.5
Marital and family status						
Never married Married Separated, widowed,	13,775 2,243	83.8 13.6	15,490 879	94.2 5.3	29,265 3,123	89.0 9.5
divorced	424	2.6	70	0.4	494	1.5
Has children	1,995	12.1	544	3.3	2,538	7.8



Table 1.2 (continued)

Characteristic	Fem	ale	Ma	le	Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Family income Less than \$5,000 5,000-9,999 10,000-14,999 15,000-19,999 20,000-24,999 25,000-29,999 30,000-39,999 40,000 or more Not available  Employment status <sup>a</sup>	1,505 2,249 1,904 1,709 1,802 1,185 1,330 1,059 3,702	9.2 13.7 11.6 10.4 11.0 7.2 8.1 6.4 22.5	1,158 2,208 2,050 1,842 1,819 1,333 1,512 1,360 3,157	7.0 13.4 12.5 11.2 11.1 8.1 9.2 8.3 19.2	2,662 4,457 3,954 3,551 3,621 2,517 2,842 2,419 6,859	8.1 13.6 12.0 10.8 11.0 7.7 8.6 7.4 20.9
Employed Unemployed Out of labor force Total	6,630 1,780 4,044 16,443	53.2 14.3 32.5 50.0	7,428 1,572 3,119	61.3 13.0 25.7 50.0	14,055 3,353 7,166 32,882	57.2 13.6 29.2 100.0

aOnly for persons 16-21 on date of interview.

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979. (N = 32,880,000)



Table 1.3 Selected Characteristics, by Age (in Thousands)

Characteristic	14-	-15	16.	-17	18	-19	20	-22	То	tal
Character 15t1t	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Region Northeast North Central South West	1,520 2,182 2,370 1,235	20.8 29.9 32.4 16.9	1,761 2,470 2,742 1,229	21.5 30.1 33.4 15.0	1,710 2,656 2,583 1,362	32.0 31.1	2,007 2,629 2,877 1,548		6,998 9,937 10,574 5,373	30.2 32.2
Enrollment status High school dropout High school	132	1.8	848	10.3	1,669		1,624	17.9	4,272	13.0
student College student Nonenrolled high	7,174	98.2 0.0	7,285 33	88.8 0.4	1,711 2,314	20.6 27.8	109 2,582		16,276 4,932	
school graduate	0	0.0	37	0.5	2,617	31.5	4,745	52.4	7,400	22.5
Educational attainment 0 I-8 9-11 12 13 or more Not available With a health limitation	12 4,995 2,172 0 1 128	0.2 68.4 29.7 0.0 0.0 1.7	1 567 7,461 71 0 101	0.0 6.9 91.0 0.9 0.0 1.2	5 313 2,950 3,941 990 113	0.1 3.8 35.5 47.4 11.9 1.4	3 331 1,289 3,868 3,459 111	0.0 3.7 14.2 42.7 38.2 1.2	21 6,206 13,871 7,879 4,450 452	42.2
Participated in government spon-sored employment and training program Ever During 1978	346 323	4.7 4.4	941 665	11.5 8.1	1,389 697	16.7 8.4	1,627 447	18.0 4.9	4,304 2,131	13.1 6.5
Marital and family status Never married Married Separated, widowed, divorced	7,290 16	99.7 0.2 0.0	8,030 149 21	97.9 1.8 0.3	7,334 865	88.3 10.4	6,607 2,091	72.9 23.1 4.0	29,265 3,121 494	89.0 9.5
Has children	57	0.8	161	2.0	739	8.9	1,581	17.5	2,538	7.8



Table 1.3 (continued)

Characteristic	14.	-15	16-17		18-	-19 20-22		Total		
Character 15th	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Family income Less than \$5,000 5,000-9,999 10,000-14,999 15,000-19,999 20,000-24,999 25,000-29,999 30,000-39,999 40,000 or more Not available  Employment status <sup>a</sup> Employed Unemployed Out of labor force Total	1,037 913 942 1,052 614 595 433 1,299	5.9 17.8	539 1,009 965 1,033 1,035 681 742 644 1,555 3,574 1,453 3,176	12.3 11.8 12.6 12.6 8.3 9.0 7.8 19.0 43.6 17.7 38.7	1,469 1,222 970 719 793 672 810 684 974 5,051 1,115 2,145	14.7 11.7 8.6 9.5 8.1 9.7 8.2	1,366 1,584 1,268 926 775 565 698 665 1,214 5,445 780 1,835	17.5 14.0 10.2 8.6 6.2 7.7 7.3 13.4 67.6 9.7 22.8	3,797 4,852 4,115 3,620 3,654 2,532 2,846 2,425 5,041 14,054 3,352 7,166 32,880	7.4 15.3 57.2 13.6 29.2

 $<sup>^{\</sup>rm a}$ Only for persons 16-21 on date of interview.

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979. (N = 32,880,000)



of the population by year of birth. However, while the selection of the sample was based on year of birth, the age variable indicates age at the time of interview. Thus, some of the sample had passed another birthday between the first of the year and when they were interviewed. Fifteen to 20 percent of the group who was twenty-one years of age on the first of January had their twenty-second birthday by the date of the interview. Similarly, we find that approximately 680,000 of the fourteen year olds had a birthday and became fifteen by the time we interviewed them in the Spring. Thus, when data are presented by age, the fourteen and fifteen year old group in our population is slightly older than all persons in this age group while the twenty to twenty-two year olds are on average younger than the general population. For most analyses, though, the effect should be quite small.

The determination of 1978 family income in our data set suffers from a common problem of surveys seeking these data--sizeable nonreponse. Youth and their parents were unable or unwilling to provide us with a complete estimate of family income for 6,860,000 persons, or 21 percent of the population. Some surveys, including the Current Population Survey, impute a family income for nonrespondents. Other surveys distribute the nonrespondents proportionally across the income categories. Both of these procedures may bias the estimate. Consequently, we have treated the nonrespondents as a separate category (Tables 1.1 and 1.2). If the nonrespondents are distributed to proportionately increase the number of persons in families at each income level, we find that 10 percent of the youth are in families with 1978



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>These figures were calculated by taking the average of the numbers of 13 and 14 year olds as of July 1, 1978 and using this figure for 14 year olds on January 1, 1979. The procedure was repeated for each year. U.S. Bureau of the Census, Census Population Reports Series P-25, No. 800, "Estimates of the Population of the United States, by Age, Sex and Race: 1976 to 1978" U.S.G.P.O., Washington, D.C., 1979, p. 15.

incomes of less than \$5,000; 27 percent are from families whose incomes were less than \$10,000; and 56 percent of the youth are from families whose incomes were less than \$20,000 a year in 1978. As expected, there are substantial differences by race. Among blacks, 22 percent live in families with less than \$5,000 in 1978 income; 51 percent live in families whose income is less than \$10,000. The corresponding figures for Hispanics are 18 percent and 46 percent, and for whites 8 percent and 22 percent, respectively. 6

Racial Differences. Table 1.1 divides the sample into blacks, Hispanics, and whites. Examining the table, we find that black youth are very heavily concentrated in the South, where over half reside. At the same time, they are substantially underrepresented in the North Central states and the West. Based on our data set, blacks have a larger proportion attending high school than the other two groups. This may have occurred because the blacks in our population appear to be somewhat younger than the whites. On the other hand, the proportions of blacks who are college students and high school graduates not enrolled in college are lower than that of whites and the proportion of high school dropouts is higher. This is reflected in the fact that the educational attainment of the black sample is less than that of the whites. A slightly smaller proportion of the blacks have been married although more of the young women, proportionately, have had children. As noted earlier, the family income of black youth is considerably below that of whites. Similarly, we find much lower employment to population ratios and higher

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>Interpretation of the family income data should be made with extreme care. Some of the youth will be in relatively low income single person households because they have left their parental homes. Others still will be living with their parents and low incomes for their families will be much more serious. We are not presently able to distinguish household composition. Later reports will do so.



proportions of the youth unemployed for blacks than for Hispanics or whites. These factors may account, in part, for the substantially higher participation rates in government-sponsored employment and training programs of blacks.

The Hispanic sample is concentrated much more heavily in the West. They, too, are underrepresented in the North Central states. The Hispanics have substantially higher school dropout rates than either the black or white groups, and nearly double that of all youth. At the same time, the proportion who are high school graduates not enrolled in college is approximately one-third lower than the national average. Their educational deficiencies are snown further by the lower average years of schooling completed for the Hispanic youth. More of the Hispanic youth are or have been married than either blacks or whites, and more of them have children than is true for whites. As noted earlier, the family income of these youth tends to be lower than that of whites but higher than that of blacks. They also are in an intermediate position in their employment to population ratios and percentage who are unemployed.

Finally, we come to the white sample, which constitutes four-fifths of the youth population. While whites are better off on average than the minorities, there are substantial numbers who have problems. For instance, over 3,000,000 in our age cohort are high school dropouts. About 5,700,000 live in families where the income is less than \$10,000, 1,660,000 have a health limitation which prevents them from working or limits the kind or amount of work which can be undertaken, and 2,300,000 of those 16 and older are unemployed.

Sex Differences. There are relatively few differences between young males and females. A slightly higher proportion of the males are still in high school, but this probably results from the younger mean age of our male



population. We do find higher rates of marriage and having children for the females, and somewhat more of them are in families with incomes of less than \$5,000. We also see a somewhat higher rate of health limitations among the women. Finally, the employment to population ratio for male 16-21 year olds is somewhat higher. The difference of 8 percentage points or 15 percent is not as large, however, as one might expect.

Age Differences. As one would expect, school enrollment is highly related to age. Likewise, age is directly related to participation in government employment and training programs. The proportion who had ever participated in such a program rises from about 5 percent for 14 and 15 year olds to 18 percent for the oldest age group. The frequency of marriage also increases with age. Thus, we find only two-tenths of 1 percent of 14 and 15 year olds have been married, while 27 percent of the oldest age group was or is married. Also increasing with age is the proportion of the youth who have had children, although we find that even for the youngest age group approximately 1 percent had already had a child and 2 percent of 16 and 17 year olds had one or more children. Family income was also related to age: larger percentages of the 18 and older groups live in households with family incomes less than \$5,000, doubtless due to these persons leaving their parental homes and starting their own households. Finally, the employment to population ratio and labor force participation rates increase with age while the percent unemployed declines markedly. The unemployment rate falls from 29 percent for 16-17 year olds to 13 percent for 20-21 year olds.

## Future Reports

Because of its preliminary nature, this report does not include all of the questions of interest asked in the Youth Survey, nor has it been able to provide detail by some important independent variables like poverty status.



These shortcomings are due to limitations on time and the necessity to revise some of the original information. Subsequent reports will add to the areas studied, complete and refine the analyses presented here, and offer further suggestions for labor policy.



### CHAPTER 2

## THE EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF YOUTH

The NLS 1979 youth survey shows that a larger percentage of young people are in the labor force and unemployment and employment/population rates are higher than previously available data indicated. As expected, however, labor force difficulties are still compounded by race, sex, and age. In this chapter, labor force participation rates (LFPR), percent unemployed, and employment/population ratios of the civilian noninstitutional population age 16-21 are analyzed by race, sex, age, and school enrollment. These data are estimated using Current Population Survey procedures; they apply to the week preceding the interview week.

The overall employment status of youth is presented first. The second section of the chapter is a comparison of the LFPR, unemployment rate, and the employment/population ratio between youth in-school and out-of-school. The third section contrasts the youth employment status obtained from the NLS and that obtained from the Current Population Survey (CPS). A fourth section isolates the employment status of Hispanic teenagers 16-19 years of age in the NLS sample and compares it with the CPS survey. The last section addresses the major findings.

## Employment Status Indicators for NLS Youth: 16-21 Years

All Youth. The standard employment status indicators presented in Table 2.1 reflect extensive youth labor market activity. A total of 17.4 million youth were in the labor force: 14.0 were employed and 3.4

Only youth between the ages of 16 to 21 years are included in this analysis: as in the CPS, younger youth are not considered. Those youth interviewed after May, 1979 are excluded to control for the large influx of students to the labor force during the summer. These youth are assumed to be distributed proportionately to those who were interviewed prior to the summer.



Table 2.1 Employment Status, by Sex and Race

Sex	Labor force participation rate	Percent unemployed	Employment/ population ratio				
		Black					
Total	65.0	38.8	39.8				
Female	60.1	41.1	35.4				
Male	70.4	36.7	44.6				
		Hispanic					
Total	62.0	22.9	47.8				
Female	53.3	24.6	40.2				
Male	71.1	21.7	55.7				
		White					
Total	72.5	16.1	60.8				
Female	69.8	18.1	57.2				
Male	75.1	14.3	64.4				
		Total					
Total	70.9	19.3	57.2				
Female	67.5	21.2	53.2				
Male	74.3	17.5	61.3				

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 16-21 on interview date. (N=24,570,000)



were unemployed. The overall LFPR was 71 percent, the unemployment rate was 19 percent, and the employment/population ratio was 57 percent.

Male youth had higher LFPR and employment population ratios than females and lower unemployment rates. As is shown in other studies, white youth had higher LFPR and employment/population ratios along with lower unemployment rates than minority youth. Furthermore, females experienced higher unemployment rates and had lower LFPR and employment/population ratios than males.

Males. Table 2.1 shows that employment status among males varied, as one would expect, by race. Of all male youth, blacks had the highest unemployment rate, 37 percent; the lowest employment/population ratio, 45 percent; and the lowest LFPR, 70 percent. Whites were at the other extreme: the LFPR was 75 percent, the unemployment rate was 14 percent, and the employment/population ratio was 64 percent. Hispanics did better than blacks but not so well as whites: their LFPR was 71 percent, unemployment 22 percent, and employment/population ratio, 56 percent.

Females. As expected, females had lower status. Among female youth, whites had a LFPR of 70 percent compared to 75 percent for white males; blacks 60 percent compared to 70 percent for black males; and Hispanics, 53 percent compared to 71 percent for Hispanic males. Black young women had the highest unemployment rate of all groups, 41 percent. Nearly 25 percent of the Hispanic females in the labor force were unemployed, compared with about 18 percent of the white females. Among females the employment/population ratio was highest for the whites, 57 percent. The



lowest employment/population ratio was among black females, 35 percent. Hispanic females had an employment/population ratio of 40 percent.

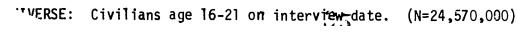
Employment Status and Age. Table 2.2 presents employment status. As one would expect, age is associated with a higher LFPR, lower unemployment rate, and higher employment/population ratio for the various youth groups, although this relationship is not uniform for all groups. For example, age is associated with a narrowing of LFPR differences among races to near parity for males age 20-21. Among the females, age also narrows the difference in the LFPR among the different racial groups, but not to the same degree as among the young men. For white males age 16-17 the LFPR is 65 percent, compared to 59 percent for blacks and 60 percent for Hispanics. For male youth age 20-21 the LFPR are nearly identical among races: whites 83 percent, blacks 82 percent, and Hispanics 79 percent. Among females age 16-17, the LFPR for whites is 62 percent, for blacks 48 percent, and for Hispanics 42 percent. Among female youth age 20-21, however, the racial differences remain pronounced relative to the young men: the LFPR is 74 percent for whites, 68 percent for blacks, and 60 percent for Hispanics.

Age is also associated with a narrowing of the employment/population ratio differences among the various racial groups, although a substantial differential remains among older youth. Among males age 16-17 the employment/population ratios were 49 percent for whites, 27 percent for blacks and 38 percent for Hispanics. Among males age 20-21 the employment/population ratios increased to 76 percent for whites, 63 percent for blacks, and 69 percent for Hispanics. For females age 16-17, the employment/population ratio was 46



Table 2.2 Employment Status, by Sex, Race and Age

	I labar Cara		
Sex	Labor force participation	Percent	Employment/
and age	rate	unemployed	population ratio
	1,000	unemproyed	14010
		Black	
Female			
16-17	47.8	54.9	21.6
18-19	63.9	40.3	38.1
20-21	68.0	32.5	45.9
Male			
16-17	59.2	53.8	27.4
18-19	72.5	34.6	47.4
20-21	82.0	23.4	62.8
		Hispanic	
Female   16-17	42.2	26.0	05.0
18-17	42.2	36.2 22.3	26.9 44.6
20-21	59.5	18.9	48.2
		10.3	40.2
Male   16-17	59.6	27.0	27. 6
18-19	76.5	37.0 16.2	37.6 64.1
20-21	79.4	13.3	68.8
		White	
   Female			
16-17	62.1	26.0	46.0
18-19	73.6	17.8	60.5
20-21	73.7	11.8	65.0
Male			
16-17	64.7	23.6	49.4
18-19	78.1	12.5	68.3
20-21	83.1	8.3	76.2
		7-4-1	
		Total	<del>_</del>
Female			
16-17	58.9	29.6	41.5
18-19 20-21	71.3	20.9	56.4
<u> </u>	/2.1	14.0	61.4
Male		10.5	4
16-17 18-19	63.6	28.3	45.6
20-21	82.7	15.5 10.4	65.3 7 <b>4.</b> 1
	1 02.7	10.7	/ T.





percent for whites, 22 percent for blacks, and 27 percent for Hispanics.

Among females age 20-21, the employment/population ratio increased to 65 percent for whites, 46 percent for blacks, and 48 percent for Hispanics.

Unemployment. As noted, age appears to reduce racial differences in LFPR, but substantial racial differences remain when employment/population ratios are examined. A large part of this relationship between age and employment/population ratio can be explained by examining the unemployment rates among different age groups. Table 2.2 shows that among males age 16-17, the unemployment rate is 24 percent for whites, 54 percent for blacks, and 37 percent for Hispanics. Among males age 20-21, unemployment rates drop to 8 percent for whites, but the racial differences still operate: the unemployment rate is 23 percent for blacks, and 13 percent for Hispanics. Unemployment rates for females age 16-17 are 26 percent for whites, 55 percent for blacks, and 36 percent for Hispanics. Among females age 20-21, the unemployment rates are reduced to 12 percent for whites, 33 percent for blacks, and 19 percent for Hispanics. Getting older thus decreases the unemployment rate among youth. However, unemployment continues to be concentrated among minority males and females regardless of age.

Even though older minority youth continue to have higher unemployment rates and somewhat lower LFPR than whites, getting older is nevertheless associated with an increase both in LFPR and employment/population ratio and a decrease in the unemployment rate for all youth. This relationship between age and employment status is closely associated with school enrollment. As youth get older they begin to shift from school responsibility towards work responsibility. In addition, many youth continue to carry on both school and work responsibilities.



### Employment Status and School Enrollment: Youth Age 16-21

As expected, youth currently enrolled in school have lower LFPR, lower employment/population ratios, and higher unemployment rates than youth who are out of school. Table 2.3 presents the employment status and school enrollment of youth age 16 to 21 by race and sex.

In-School Youth. Among in-school youth, whites had the highest LFPR, highest employment/population ratio, and the lowest unemployment rate of any of the racial groups. Among in-school white males the LFPR was 63 percent, the unemployment rate was 17 percent, and the employment/ population rate was 52 percent. White in-school females had only a slight variation in employment status as compared to the males. The employment status data indicates that in-school minority youth trail white youth in LFPR and employment/population ratio. Moreover, minority in-school youth have higher unemployment rates than whites. In-school black males had an LFPR of 59 percent, an unemployment rate of 47 percent, and an employment/ population ratio of 31 percent. The in-school black females had an LFPR of 55 percent, an unemployment rate of 42 percent, and an employment/ population ratio of 32 percent. Hispanics have less trouble than blacks: in-school males had an LFPR of 58 percent, an unemployment rate of 29 percent, and an employment/population ratio of 41 percent. The Hispanic in-school females had an LFPR of 48 percent, an unemployment rate of 28 percent, and an employment/population ratio of 34 percent. In addition,



Table 2.3 Employment Status, by Sex, Race and School Enrollment Status

Sex		force				yment/
Sex	Enrolled	Not enrolled		unemployed Not enrolled		ion ratio
	12.11.01.100	nov emorred			Ellrotted	noc enrorred
	<u> </u>		Blac	:k		
Total	56.6	75.7	44.0	33.9	31.7	50.0
Female	54.6	66.8	41.5	40.7	31.9	39.6
Male	58.6	85.8	46.5	28.0	31.4	61.8
			Hispar	ic		
Total	52.9	71.2	28.5	18.7	37.8	57.9
Female	47.6	58.4	28.4	21.8	34.1	45.7
Male	57.8	86.2	28.6	16.3	41.3	72.1
			Whit	е		
Total	62.9	84.9	17.9	14.4	51.6	72.6
Female	63.1	77.7	19.1	17.1	5].0	64.4
Male	62.8	93.4	16.8	11.8	52.3	82.4
			Tota	1		
Total	61.5	82.6	21.6	17.1	48.2	68.5
Female	61.0	74.9	22.4	20.2	47.3	59.8
Male	62.1	91.8	20.9	14.2	49.1	78.8

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 16-21 on interview date. (N=24,570,000)



there are some notable differences by sex in employment status among the various in-school minority groups: black males, for example, have the highest unemployment rate and Hispanic females have the lowest LFPR.

Out-of-School Youth. As expected, out-of-school youth, in particular white males, were more active in the labor market than those in school. Among out-of-school males, whites had an LFPR of 93 percent, an unemployment rate of 12 percent, and an employment/population ratio of 82 percent. Blacks, predictably, had more difficulty: males had a LFPR of 86 percent, an unemployment rate of 28 percent, and an employment/population ratio of 62 percent. Hispanic males had an LFPR of 86 percent, an unemployment rate of 16 percent, and an employment/population ratio of 72 percent.

Among out-of-school females, whites had an LFPR of 78 percent, an unemployment rate of 17 percent, and an employment/population ratio of 64 percent.

Again the pattern of difficulty for minorities is reflected in the fact that black females had an LFPR of 67 percent, an unemployment rate of 41 percent, and an employment/population ratio of 40 percent. Hispanic females had an LFPR of 58 percent, an unemployment rate of 22 percent, and an employment/population ratio of 46 percent. In the out-of-school group, females had lower LFPRs, higher unemployment rates, and lower employment/population ratios than the males. A possible explanation for these differences among out-of-school males and females is that out-of-school females are more engaged in both housekeeping and child rearing activities.



Age, School, and Employment Status Among Males. Table 2.4 shows that age does not produce a uniform impact on the employment status of the in-school and out-of-school youth. For example, among in-school white males the LFPR is about 63 percent for all age groups. Blacks age 16-17 had an LFPR of 57 percent, and Hispanics 55 percent. However, among those age 18-19 both black and Hispanic in-school youth had an LFPR of 65 percent. Moreover, the LFPR dropped among blacks and Hispanics age 20-21, whose participation rates were 49 percent and 56 percent, respectively. Although further research is required to explain why college enrolled minority youth participate less in the labor force than white youth, possible explanations may include such considerations as financial awards, work opportunities, or preferred allocation of study time over work responsibilities.

Age is associated with a lowering of the unemployment rate for in-school males. However, black in-school males continue to have excessively high unemployment rates despite the aging factor. For example, among those age 16-17, the black in-school male unemployment rate was 54 percent. Among those age 20-21, the black unemployment rate was 29 percent in comparison to 7 percent for whites and 7 percent for Hispanics. Age is also associated with an increase in the employment/population ratio for the in-school male. Once again, the increase in the employment/population ratio was not as dramatic for in-school black males. Among those age 20-21, the employment/population ratio was 35 percent for black youth as compared to 59 percent for whites and 51 percent for Hispanics.

For out-of-school males, regardless of race, age was associated with an increase both in LFPR and employment/population ratios. In addition, unemployment dropped as as increased. However,



Table 2.4 Employment Status, by School Enrollment, Sex, Race and Age

	Labor	force	<del> </del>		l Emple	yment/
Sex	particip	ation rate	Percent	unemployed	populat	ion ratio
<u>and age</u>	Enrolled	Not Enrolled	Enrolied	Not enrolled	Enrolled	Not enrolled
			Bla	nck		
Female					T -	
16-17	49.0	36.8	55.4	49.0	21.9	18.8
18-19 20-21	59.3 63.9	68.1	28.5	49.6	42.4	34.3
20-21	03.9	69.7	29.9	33.4	44.8	46.4
Male						
16-17	57.2	73.1	54.0	52.6	26.3	34.6
18-19	64.5	81.3	39.6	30.3	38.9	56.7
20-21	49.1	91.7	29.2	22.5	34.8	71.1
			Hispa	inic		
Female	20. 0	50.6		07.0	05 -	
16-17 18-19	39.8 53.8	53.6 59.6	36.0	37.0	25.5	33.8
20-21	63.1	58.4	24.5 17.9	21.2 19.3	40.6 51.8	47.0 47.1
	03.1	30.4	17.5	13.3	31.0	7/.1
Male	55.0					
16-17 18-19	55.0	81.6	40.3	26.1	32.8	60.3
20-21	65.0 55.5	85.9 87.7	17.7 7.3	15.2 14.6	53.5 51.4	72.8 74.9
20 2.	33.3	07	7.5	14.0	31.4	
   Female			Whi	te	<del></del>	
16-17	62.0	62.5	24.5	36.8	46.8	39.5
18-19	65.7	80.8	15.3	19.5	55.6	65.0
20-21	61.3	77.8	7.7	12.9	56.6	67.8
Male						
16-17	63.2	79.1	23.2	26.5	48.5	58.2
18-19	61.9	93.9	11.8	13.0	54.6	81.7
20-21	63.1	95.1	7.0	8.9	58.7	86.7
			Tot			
Female					T	
16-17	59.0	58.7	28.5	37.9	42.2	36.4
18-19 20-21	64.1	77.4	17.6	23.3	52.8	59.4
20-21	62.0	75.5	11.9	15.7	54.6	63.7
Male						
16-17	62.0	78.5	28.0	30.3	44.6	54.7
18-19 20-21	62.4 61.6	91.8 94.2	16.0 8.4	15.1 11.1	52.4	78.0
20-21	01.0	34.6	0.4	11.1	56.4	83.7
<del></del>	<u> </u>			<u> </u>		L

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 16-21 on interview date. (N=24,570,000)



minority youth continued to trail whites in LFPR and employment/population ratios, and they had higher unemployment rates as compared to whites regardless of age group. Among out-of-school males age 16-17 blacks had an unemployment rate of 53 percent in comparison to about 27 percent for white and 26 percent for Hispanics. High unemployment rates continued for the oldest out-of-school black males age 20-21, whose rate was 23 percent, compared a rate of 9 percent for whites and 15 percent for Hispanics. In addition out-of-school black males age 20-21 had an employment/population ratio of 71 percent as compared to 87 percent for whites and 75 percent for Hispanics.

Age, School and Employment Status Among Females. Age influenced the employment status of both in-school and out-of-school females in a different manner than for the males. For example, among school-enrolled females age 20-21, minority females had a slightly higher LFPR than whites, whose LFPR was 61 percent compared to 64 percent for black and 53 percent for Hispanic females. Among those age 16-19, LFPR for in-school white females was higher than the minority rate.

For the in-school females, age was associated with a lowering of the unemployment rate and an increase in the employment/population ratio. However, black school-enrolled females continued to have very high unemployment rates and low employment/population ratios regardless of age. School-enrolled black females age 20-21 had an unemployment rate of 30 percent in comparison to 8 percent for whites and 18 percent for Hispanics. Black in-school females age 16-17 had an unemployment rate of 55 percent in comparison to 25 percent for whites and 36 percent for Hispanics.

In general, out-of school females had higher LFPR and employment/population



ratios along with lower unemployment rates than in-school females. There were, however, some exceptions. Hispanic females age 20-21 who were out of school had an LFPR of 58 percent as compared to 63 percent for those in school. Moreover, in-school Hispanic females had an employment/population ratio of 52 percent as compared to 47 percent for out-of-school Hispanic females. In addition, the LFPR for out-of-school females dropped slightly among those 20-21. For example, whites age 18-19 had an LFPR of 81 percent, but it dropped to 78 percent for those age 20-21. Among Hispanics the rate between these two age groups dropped by only 1 percent and among blacks it increased by 2 percent. Out-of-school white females age 20-21 have fewer economic constraints than minority females.

Among out-of-school females there was a lowering of the unemployment rate and an increase in the employment/population ratio with increased age. As was the case for black males, black females continue to have very high unemployment rates and low employment/population ratios regardless of age. Out-of-school black females age 20-21 had an unemployment rate of 33 percent, compared to 19 percent for Hispanics and 13 percent for whites. Black and Hispanic females had an employment/population ratio of 46 percent and 47 percent, respectively, in this age group as compared to 68 percent for whites.

#### Unemployment: In-School Versus Out-of-School

A major issue in youth employment is whether those enrolled in school experience more unemployment than those out of school. A close comparison of the unemployment rates for in-school and out-of-school youth produced mixed results by race and sex. In the case of both white males and females, out-of-school youth had higher unemployment rates than in-school youth among all age groups. However, for both black and Hispanic males, unemployment rates



were lower for the out-of-school group in comparison to those in school. The only exception to this trend was for Hispanic males 20-21 years of age. For minority females, whether unemployment was lower or higher by school enroll-ment depended on the specific age in question.

#### NLS and CPS Comparison: Youth 16-21 Years of Age

Overall the NLS youth sample yielded higher labor force participation rates than the Current Population Survey (CPS) for the civilian, noninstitutional youth 16-21 years of age. Table 2.5 compares the employment status of the NLS youth sample with March 1979 data from the CPS. In order to compare youth in the NLS sample and the CPS survey, the white and other race cohort and the Hispanic cohort in the NLS sample are combined to yield a white race group since in the CPS, the white race group includes Hispanics. Differences between the two "white" groups still exist, however, since about 4 percent of the Hispanics in the CPS survey are classified as black but are considered white in the NLS regrouping. On the other hand the NLS white group includes other races who in the CPS are combined with blacks. The results of these differences should be to understate slightly the LFPR and employment/ population ratios for the NLS white group and to overstate its unemployment rate relative to the CPS. The opposite will occur for blacks where the only difference between the CPS and NLS group is that the NLS excludes other races and Hispanic blacks. The other races category comprises only about 2 percent of the whites and 11 percent of the blacks so the NLS and CPS should be quite comparable.

The CPS reference month selected to compare with the NLS youth sample is March 1979, the modal month for interviewing NLS youth, when approximately 44 percent of the NLS youth sample (summer months excluded) was interviewed. Furthermore, there was only slight variation by month among the employment status figures obtained from the CPS during the period of January to May 1979.



Table 2.5 Employment Status, by Sex and Race: Comparison of NLS and CPS<sup>a</sup>

Sex		abor f icipat	force tion rate	Per	cent	unemployed		mploy: ulatio	ment/ On ratio
	NLS		Difference	NLS	CPS	Difference	NLS	CPS	Difference
				<sub>r</sub>	Bla	ckb			
Total	<b>65.</b> 0	45.9	19.1	38.8	28.1	10.7	39.8	33.0	6.8
Female	60.1	40.4	19.7	41.1	27.3	13.8	35.4	29.4	6.0
Male	70.4	52.0	18.4	36.7	28.7	7.0	44.6	37.7	7.5
	-				Whi	te <sup>C</sup>			
Total	71.7	62.4	9.3	16.6	12.3	4.3	59.8	54.8	5.0
Female	68.7	59.0	9.7	18.4	11.5	6.9	56.0	52.2	3.8
Male	74.9	65.9	9.0	14.8	13.0	1.8	63.8	57.3	6.5
					Tot	al	•		
Total	70.9	59.9	11.0	19.3	14.1	5.2	57.2	51.5	5.7
Female	67.5	56.1	11.4	21.2	13.2	8.0	53.2	48.6	4.6
Male	74.3	63.9	10.4	17.5	14.0	2.6	61.3	54.4	6.9

<sup>a</sup>CPS figures are for March, 1979. <sup>b</sup>NLS excludes other races from Black category. CPS includes other races in Black

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 16-21 on interview date. (N=24,570,000)



category.

CNLS includes Hispanics and other races in White category. CPS includes Hispanics

LFPR Differences. The NLS survey showed an overall LFPR of 71 percent in comparison to 60 percent for the CPS survey. The NLS survey thus obtained a one-sixth higher LFPR than the CPS survey. However, the differential varied by race and sex in the NLS sample. White males had a 9 percentage point and white females had a 10 point difference over the labor force participation rates obtained in the CPS survey. For both black males and females in the NLS sample, the difference in LFPR as compared to the CPS survey were 18 points and 20 points, respectively.

<u>Unemployment Differences</u>. In addition, the NLS reported 37 percent higher unemployment rates for youth than the CPS survey. Overall, the NLS youth sample had an unemployment rate of 19 percent, compared to 14 percent for the CPS survey. The difference in unemployment rate is not reflected uniformly across the different youth groups by race and sex. For white males, the difference between the NLS and CPS survey was only 14 percent. However the NLS sample yielded an unemployment rate 23 percent higher for black males, 51 percent higher for black females, and 60 percent higher for white females as compared to the CPS unemployment figures.

Employment/Population Differences. Less variation was found in the employment/population ratio between the NLS and CPS survey. In all comparisons, the NLS produced the higher employment/population ratio. Overall, the NLS yielded an employment/population ratio about 6 points or 11 percent higher than the CPS ratio. The most similar employment/population ratios in the NLS and CPS were found for white females, for whom there was only a 4 point or 7 percent difference. For both black males and females, there were 20 percent differences between the NLS and CPS, and an 11 percent difference for white males.

<u>Survey Differences by Age</u>. In general, the NLS yielded higher LFPR, unemployment rates, and employment/population ratios than the CPS for the



youngest age group, 16-17. The differential between the figures obtained in the NLS and CPS were substantially narrowed for the older age groups. Table 2.6 compares the employment status data for the NLS and CPS survey by selected age groups. Among youth 16-17 years. white males in the NLS had a LFPR 14 points higher than that in the CPS, and black males a 30 point difference. However, among those age 20-21 the difference in LFPR was only 5 points for white males and 6 points for black males. For females the LFPR differences between the two surveys are greatest for the youngest age group, narrowing for the oldest age groups.

Differences in the unemployment rates between the two surveys were also more accentuated among the youngest age groups. Larger absolute differences in unemployment were also found for minority youth and white females. As for the relative differences between surveys, the NLS unemployment rate was 26 percent higher than the CPS among white males age 16-17 but the rates are nearly identical for the other age groups. For white males age 20-21, the CPS actually had a slightly higher unemployment rate than the NLS. For 5lack males age 16-17, the unemployment rate of the NLS was 24 percent higher than the CPS; but for black males age 20-21, the unemployment rates were 23 percent in both surveys.

For females, the NLS had higher unemployment rates than CPS for all the age groups. Black females in the NLS had an unemployment rate 48 percent higher than the CPS for youth age 16-17, 55 percent higher for youth age 18-19, and 34 percent higher for youth age 20-21. For white females, the NLS also had 64, 58, and 44 percent higher rates than the CPS for the three age groups.



Table 2.6 Employment Status, by Sex, Race, and Age: Comparison of NLS and CPSa

Sex and age			force ation rate	Per	cent	unemployed	por	Employment/ population ratio			
age	NLS	CPS	Difference	NLS	CPS	Difference	NLS	CPS	Difference		
		<del></del> ,			Blac	<b>d</b>		_			
Females 16-17 18-19 20-21	63.9	23.0 41.8 56.8	22.1	40.3	37.1 26.0 24.2	14.3	38.1	14.5 30.9 43.1			
Males 16-17 18-19 20-21	72.5	29.1 56.1 75.8		34.6	43.5 27.0 23.2	7.6		16.5 40.9 58.2	6.5		
				_	White	C					
Females 16-17 18-19 20-21	72.5	45.9 62.6 68.0	9.9		16 2 11.4		59.4	38.4 55.5 62.3	6.2 3.9 1.5		
Males 16-17 18-19 20-21	77.9	50.3 70.2 77.8		14.8 24.6 12.8 8.7	19. 12.6		68.0	40.4 61.3 70.9	8.1 6.7 4.8		

 $<sup>^{\</sup>rm a}$ CPS figures are for March 1979.

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 16-21 on interview date. (N=24,570,000)



bNLS includes Hispanics and other races in White category. CPS includes Hispanics but not other races in White category.

 $<sup>^{</sup>m CNLS}$  excludes other races in Black category. CPS includes other races in Black category.

The difference in employment/population ratios between the two surveys was also more pronounced in the youngest age groups. The largest differential occurred in the case of black males age 16-17, an 11 point difference. The differential, however, narrowed among older youth for both blacks and whites. For both black and white males age 20-21, the differentials between the two surveys were identical, about 5 points. For females age 20-21, the differential between the two surveys was 2 points for whites and 3 points for blacks.

Survey Differences by Major Activity. A major difference between the NLS and CPS surveys in labor force participation rate, unemployment rate, and employment/population ratio for youth 16-21 years of age was in the school activity category. Table 2.7 compares the employment status of youth in the NLS and CPS surveys, controlling for school activity and selected characteristics. Youth were categorized by major activity during the survey week, i.e., individuals who stated that their main activity was going to school were classified in the school activity category, and all other individuals who were employed, looking for work, keeping house, unable to work, or engaging in other activities were included in an "all other activity" sategory. The largest differential in LFPR between the two surveys was for youth whose major activity was school during the survey week. Overall, there was about a 16 point difference between the LFPR of the NLS and that of the CPS. For blacks, the differential was about 28 points as compared to 14 points for whites. For youth engaged in all other activities, the LFPR differential between the two surveys was substantially less, especially for the white group. For white males, the relative LFPR difference was less than 2 percent and under 5 percent for females. For black males, the



Table 2.7 Employment Status by Major Activity, Sex and Race: Comparison of NLS and CPSa

Major activity		Black <sup>b</sup>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	White			Total	
and survey	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
			Labor	force p	articij	oation ra	ate		
School NLS CPS Difference	47.3 20.0 27.3	51.8 24.1 27.7	49.6 22.1 27.5	53.8 39.8 14.0	53.3 40.3 13.0	53.5 40.1 13.4	52.8 36.6 16.2	53.1 37.8 15.3	53.0 37.2 15.8
All other NLS CPS Difference	70.9 59.7 11.2	87.4 83.6 3.8	78.6 70.5 8.1	79.2 75.8 3.4	92.9 91.3 1.6	85.6 83.3 2.3	78.2 73.4 4.8	92.2 90.3 1.9	84.8 81.4 3.4
				Percent	unemp]	loyed			
School NLS CPS Difference	54.1 30.0 24.1	56.6 42.7 13.9	55.4 36.9 18.5	27.7 15.8 11.9	23.7 18.5 5.2	25.6 17.2 8.4	31.3 17.0 14.3	28.0 20.9 7.1	29.6 19.0 10.6
All other NLS CPS Difference	33.7 26.4 7.3	26.1 24.1 2.0	29.7 25.2 4.5	14.0 9.5 4.5	10.5 10.6 -0.1	12.2 10.0 2.2	16.3 11.6 4.7	12.3 12.3 0.0	14.3 12.0 2.3
			Emp	loyment/	populat	tion rat	io		
School NLS CPS Difference	21.7 14.0 7.7	22.5 13.8 8.7	22.1 13.9 8.2	38.9 33.5 5.4	40.7 32.9 7.8	39.8 33.2 6.6	36.3 30.4 5.9	38.2 29.9 8.3	37.3 30.2 7.1
All other NLS CPS Difference	47.0 44.0 3.0	64.6 63.4 1.2	55.3 52.8 2.5	68.1 68.7 -0.6	83.2 81.7 1.5	75.2 74.9 0.3	65.4 64.9 0.5	80.8 79.2 1.6	72.7 71.7 1.0

 $^{
m a}$ CPS figures are for March, 1979.  $^{
m b}$ NLS excludes other races from Black category. CPS includes other races in Black category.

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 16-21 on interview date. (N=24,570,000)



CNLS includes Hispanics and other races in White category. CPS includes Hispanics but not other races in White category.

relative difference was 4 percent; however among black females the NLS LFPR was 16 percent higher than the CPS.

Differences in the unemployment rates between the two surveys was also greater among youth who were mainly engaged in school activities during the survey week, 56 percent as opposed to 19 percent for those mainly engaged in other activities. Among whites engaged in school activity the relative difference in unemployment rates for males was 28 percent and for females 75 percent. For blacks the difference in unemployment rates was 32 percent for males and 80 percent for black females. For white males and females engaged in all other activities the difference between surveys was less than 1 percent and 47 percent, respectively. For blacks in all other activities, there was 8 percent difference for males between the unemployment rates of the two surveys, but 28 percent for females.

For both black males and white males engaged in school activity during the survey week there was about 8 and 9 point difference respectively between the employment/population ratios of the NLS and CPS. The ratios were 24, 16, 63 and 55 percent higher in the NLS for white males and females and black males and females, respectively. The NLS and CPS employment/population ratios were quite similar for youth engaged in all other activities. Among females the CPS actually had a slightly higher employment/population ratio than the NLS. For black males and females whose major activity was not school, the NLS employment/population ratios were 2 and 7 percent higher than the CPS ratio.



## CPS and NLS Hispanic Teenage Comparison: Youth 16-19 Years of Age

Recently, the Current Population Survey has collected labor force data on Hispanics, published on a quarterly basis. However, the data is not available for all age groups. In particular, LFPR and employment/population ratio are not available by sex for youth, but only available for all youth 16-19 years of age. Table 2.8 presents the NLS and CPS data for teenagers for race and Hispanic origin. The CPS figures represent averages for first quarter 1979. For comparative purposes, the "white and other race" cohort and the Hispanic cohort in the NLS survey are combined to yield a comparable CPS white group. The data for Hispanics are also presented separately. In the NLS sample, LFPR obtained for Hispanics was higher than the CPS, a difference of 12 points. The NLS employment/population ratio for Hispanics also was slightly higher than the CPS estimate, a 5 point difference.

Table 2.8 also presents the NLS unemployment rates of teenagers by Hispanic origin and sex for specific age groups and co-pares the findings with the CPS estimates. Among males 16-17 years, the NLS unemployment rate was 37 percent and the CPS rate was 27 percent. For Hispanic females in this age group the unemployment rate was 37 percent in the NLS survey and 29 percent in the CPS. For Hispanics 18-19 years, unemployment rate differences drop somewhat, but the NLS estimates remain higher than the CPS. Among teenagers 16-17 years of age, the NLS unemployment rate was 40 percent higher for males and 27 percent higher for females than the CPS rates. For teenagers 18-19 years of age, the differences are 30 percent higher for males and 34 percent higher for females.



Table 2.8 Employment Status of White and Hispanic Youth, by Sex and Age<sup>a</sup>

Sex and age	Labor force participation rate			Per	cent	unemployed	poj		oyment/ ion ratio
	NLS	CPS	Difference	NLS	CPS	Difference	NLS	CPS	Difference
		_			Hisp	anic			
Total	58.9	47.1	11.8	27.0	19.1	7.9	43.0	38.1	4.9
Female 16-17 18-19	50.3 42.5 57.7			37.2	21.0 29.3 16.6	7.9	36.1 26.7 44.9		!
Male 16-17 18-19	67.4 59.7 76.3			37.2	17.7 26.5 12.5	10.7	49.8 37.5 63.9		
		<u> </u>	·		Whi	te <sup>b</sup>			
Total	68.8	56.9	11.9	19.9	14.9	5.0	55.1	48.4	6.7
Female 16-17 18-19	66.7 60.6 72.5			26.4	13.6 15.7 12.2	10.7	52.2 44.6 59.4		
Male 16-17 18-19	71.0 74.3 77.9			24.5	16.1 20.0 13.4	4.5	58.1 48.5 68.0		

 $<sup>^{\</sup>mathrm{a}}\mathrm{CPS}$  figures are for the first quarter of 1979.

UNIVERSE: White and Hispanic civilians ages 16-19 on interview date. (N = 14,210,000)



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup>NLS includes Hispanics and other races in the White category; CPS includes Hispanics but not other races in the White category.

#### Summary of Major Findings

Standard employment status indicators show that labor force involvement among American youth is extensive. Since young workers generally lack skills and experience, they encounter difficulties in the labor market. Youth, however, are not a homogeneous group with similar problems in the labor force. An examination of youth employment status reveals considerable variation in labor force participation rates, unemployment rates, and employment/population ratios by race, sex, and age. In addition, employment status varies by school enrollment status.

The rate of unemployment is higher for the youngest age group, 16-17, and the unemployment burden of the youngest age group is compounded for minorities. Over half of the blacks age 16-17 in the labor force are unemployed, a rate double that of whites. The unemployment rate for Hispanics in the same age group is midway between that of whites and blacks. Moreover, the employment situation is not completely ameliorated with age. Among all racial groups, unemployment declines for those age 20-21. Minority youth in this age group, however, continue to have high unemployment rates, with the highest rate, 33 percent, suffered by black females. By comparison, the unemployment rates for white males in this age group is 8 percent, and 12 percent for white females. The higher proportion of unemployment among minority youth is also reflected in the employment/population ratios. Minority youth, regardless of age, had lower employment/population ratios than whites.

An examination of the relationship between school enrollment and employment status shows that youth appear to be embracing both school and work responsibilities. Over half of youth in school were also in the labor force,



although out-of-school youth had higher LFPR. Among whites age 16-17, however, both in-school and out-of-school females had similar LFPR. The in-school LFPR of minority youth was generally lower than for in-school whites. For the most part, in-school minority youth also had lower LFPR than those out of school. Black females age 16-17 and Hispanic females age 20-21 who were in school participated more in the labor force than did those out of school. The LFPR for in-school minority females age 20-21 were actually higher than in-school minority males of the same age group. These rates show a higher degree of commitment to the work force among young people than has been suggested by previously available data.

In general, unemployment is higher for the out-of-school youth as compared to in-school youth. This holds true for whites but not for minority youth. Both in-school black and Hispanic males had higher unemployment rates than those out-of-school. The exception to this trend for minority males was in the case of school enrolled Hispanics age 20-21, who had lower unemployment rates among the in-school group. In the case of minority females, whether unemployment was higher or lower by school enrollment status depended on the specific age group in question.

Another major finding in employment status was the magnitude of unemployment and labor force participation among youth age 16-21 in the NLS sample as compared to the March 1979 CPS. The NLS sample yielded higher labor force participation, employment/population ratios and unemployment rates than the CPS. These differences in employment status between the two surveys were much greater for youth age 16-17 and, in particular, minority youth.



However, the differentials between the two surveys narrowed in the older age groups. For white and black males age 20-21, the CPS unemployment rate was actually slightly higher than the NLS.

The difference in employment status between the two surveys was dependent on major activity. A large difference in employment status between the surveys occurred for those youth who stated school was their major activity during the survey week, as compared to youth engaged in all other activities. Among youth 16 to 21 years of age engaged in school activity, the NLS had a 16 point higher LFPR than the CPS but only a 3 point difference for youth engaged in all other activities. Likewise the employment/population ratios were much higher in the NLS as compared to the CPS for those whose major activity was school. The employment/population ratios were nearly identical between the two surveys for youth engaged in all other activities. Survey differences in unemployment rates were also more pronounced for youth engaged in school activities.

In comparing the employment status of Hispanic teenagers age 16-19 by surveys, substantially higher LFPR, unemployment rates, and employment/ population ratios were found in the NLS sample as compared to CPS. In both surveys, the employment status of Hispanics as measured by LFPR, percent unemployed, and employment/population ratios was somewhat more favorable than the status of black youth, but less favorable than whites.

Overall, the NLS sample may have yielded higher rates of labor force participation, percent unemployed, and employment/population ratios for a variety of reasons. A major reason may be that the labor force status of youth in the NLS sample is determined by the response of the youth, whereas the CPS labor force status is usually determined by the response of the parent. The labor market activities of youth and willingness to accept a



job may not be perceived identically by the youth and parent. Holding this factor constant and other measurement considerations aside, the findings of the NLS sample indicate that the magnitude of the youth employment problem may also be greater than has normally been perceived. Further research in this area will shed more insight into this possibility, as additional work on the NLS youth sample is completed.



#### CHAPTER 3

#### YOUTH EMPLOYMENT CONDITIONS

Hours In describing the jobs held by youth, we begin with a consideration of the usual number of hours worked per week. As indicated in Table 3.1, the majority of employed youth normally work at part-time jobs, with nearly a third of youth employment in jobs involving fewer than 20 hours of work per week. School enrollment is clearly the key factor here: over 90 percent of those employed and enrolled in high school and over 75 percent

Table 3.1 Usual Hours Worked per Week, by School Enrollment Status
(Percentage distributions)

Usual hours worked	High school dropout	High school student	College student	Nonenrolled high school graduate	Total
1-19	6.8	61.3	44.5	4.5	31.5
20-34	15.7	31.6	32.4	11.1	22.4
35 or more	<b>77.</b> 5	7.1	23.0	84.4	46.1
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979 who were employed on the interview date. (N=16,560,000)

of those employed and enrolled in college work part-time, while among employed nonenrollees the corresponding figure is below 20 percent. These data suggest that growth in the availability of part-time employment has been a major factor contributing to the secular increase in labor force participation rates of enrolled youth.

 $\frac{\text{Occupational Distribution}}{\text{Of employed youth by sex and enrollment status.}} \text{ The considerable amount of}$ 



Table 3.2 Occupation, by Sex and Enrollment Status
(Percentage distributions)

Occupation	High so		High so		Colleg s tuden		Nonenro		Tota	.1	_
occupation							HS grad Female	Male			Total
Professional, technical	1.0	0.7		1.7	7.0	10.6		3.4	3.9	3.3	
Managers, administrators	2.3	2.4	0.5	0.6	2.8	4.4	3.5	5.4	2.2	3.0	2.6
Sales	7.1	1.4	9.5	12.1	7.4	7.7	8.0	3.1	8.3	6.9	7.6
Clerical	17.9	2.9	22.8	5.4	43.0	16.3	46.9	6.9	35.1	7.0	20.1
Craft	2.6	17.7	0.7	5.4	0.8	11.3	1.6	24.0	1.2	14.2	8.2
Operatives (ex- cept transporta- tion)	25.8	25.5	2.0	7.9	3.8	6.8	9.3	20.3	7.4	14.5	11.2
Transportation operatives	0.9	7.5	0.5	2.8	0.0	0.9	0.3	8.4	0.4	5.1	2.9
Laborers (nonfarm)	4.0	23.1	1.9	24.7	2.8	12.8	2.5	15.6	2.5	19.8	11.8
Farmers	0.0	0.3	0.2	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	0.1	0.4	0.2
Farm laborers	1.8	4.1	1.8	8.7	0.3	1.0	0.7	3.1	1.1	5.1	3.2
Service workers (except private household)	26.1	13.4	32.3	29.1	28.8	2/.5	20.6	9.4	26.6	20.0	23.1
Private house- hold workers	10.5	0.9	25.9	1.1	3.3	0.7	1.6	0.0	11.1	0.6	5.5
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979, who were employed on the interview date. (N=16,560,000)



data contained in the table permits one to make a number of interesting comparisons. Beginning at the most general level, comparison of youth employment with total employment reveals that youth are underrepresented in higher-level white collar occupations (professional and technical workers, managers and administrators) as well as in craft positions. Overrepresentation of youth is most apparent in the service sector, and among laborers and private household workers. This pattern largely reflects the fact that youth generally have not yet had opportunities to acquire the experience and skills necessary to move into higher-level white-collar and blue-collar occupations.

Stratification by enrollment status highlights the importance of the service sector as a source of employment for students: close to 30 percent of employed students work in service occupations. A fourth of employed males in high school work as laborers, while similar proportions of their female counterparts are in clerical occupations and are working as private household workers. Among college students employed young women in clerical occupations represent 43 percent of total female employment, while the young men are more widely dispersed throughout the occupational distribution. In general, examination of the occupational distributions of enrollees by sex reveals that even for the predominantly part-time jobs held by students the phenomenon of occupational segregation is readily apparent.

The influence of educational attainment on early occupational assignments can be inferred from a comparison of the occupations of dropouts with those of nonenrolled high school graduates. Among female graduates nearly half work in clerical occupations while another fifth are employed as service workers. For their dropout counterparts, service work is the



most populated group, one-fourth work as operatives, fewer than a fifth are in clerical positions, and 11 percent work as private household workers. Among males not in school, 19 percent of the graduates are in white-collar jobs compared to 7 percent of the drop-outs. With regard to blue-collar jobs, operatives are most numerous in both groups, but for drop-outs laborers are the next most sizable group while for graduates this distinction goes to the craft occupations. It thus appears, even at this highly aggregative level, that failure to complete high school serves as a constraint on those youth with aspirations for higher-level blue-collar and white-collar jobs.

Industrial Distribution Examination of the industry mix of employed youth (Table 3.3) confirms a number of the observations made with respect to the occupational data. For example, the importance of service occupations noted previously is reflected here by the high proportions of youth employed in retail trade (almost half of the employed in this group work in "eating and drinking places") and in the service sector. Conversely, youth are most notably underrepresented in public administration (in comparison with the entire civilian labor force).

As before, school enrollment status plays an important conditioning role. Students are clearly more likely to be in retail trade than non-students: 42 percent of those enrolled in high school and 35 percent of those enrolled in college are in this industry group compared with 24 and 27 percent of drop-outs and nonenrolled high school graduates, respectively. Within each school enrollment group, young women are more likely to be in retail trade than young men. A similar pattern is apparent



Since some youth employed in the public sector are not classified under "public administration," the 2 percent figure understates the public sector share of youth employment. This share is 8 percent--roughly half that for the total labor force.

Table 3.3 Industry, by Sex and School Enrollment Status
(Percentage distributions)

Industry (% of total	High s dropou	chool	High so				Nonenr			
employment)			studen Female	Male	studen Female	Mala	HS grad	luates Mala	Tota Female	Malo
Grap to y more y		· ia · c	Cilare	TIG T C	i cina re	Tid I E	I Cilia I C	Ma Te	remare	Ma Te
Agriculture, mining (5.0)	3.1	8.5	2.3	10.4	2.0	1.4	1.6	6.5	2.0	7.6
Construction (4.9)	1.4	16.9	0.8	2.7	0.5	2.8	1.3	13.1	1.0	8.3
Manufacturing, durables (9.2)	10.4	20.4	0.7	3.3	2.5	8.5	7.7	23.1	4.6	13.1
Manufacturing, nondurables (7.5)	15.0	7.3	4.1	10.4	4.6	4.9	7.9	7.8	6.7	8.3
Transportation, communication (2.6)	1.9	4.7	0.4	1.0	1.4	3.0	3.6	4.9	1.9	3.1
Wholesale trade (2.0)	0.7	3.7	0.6	1.9	0.9	3.3	1.9	3.0	1.2	2.7
Retail trade (33.3)	36.0	17.9	42.5	41.5	37.0	32.4	30.7	23.6	36.4	30.7
Finance, insurance, real estate (4.1)	2.2	0.7	2.4	1.9	3.5	2.1	13.4	2.1	<b>6.</b> 8	1.8
Business, repair services (4.9)	1.9	10.5	1.8	<b>5.</b> 5	0.5	8.7	3.3	7.1	2.2	7.3
Personal services (8.7)	13.5	3.0	28.8	7.6	4.9	5.0	4.1	1.2	13.6	4.5
Entertainment, recreation services (2.2)	0.8	1.2	2.2	3.9	2.3	<b>3.</b> 5	1.0	1.3	1.6	2.6
Professional, re- lated services (13.4)	11.3	3.4	12.1	8.1	37.3	22.9	20.3	3.8	19.6	8.0
Public administra- tion (2.1)	1.8	1.7	1.2	1.8	2.6	1.5	3.3	2.6	2.3	2.0
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979 who were employed on the inter/iew date. (N=16,560,000)



for the service sector. Grouping personal services, entertainment and recreation services, and professional and related services, we find that among employed males a fifth of high school students and nearly a third of college students are in this service group, compared to fewer than 10 percent of their nonenrolled counterparts. Among employed females, over 40 percent of enrolled youth are in these industries compared to 25 percent of the nonenrolled. As was the case with the occupational distributions, young women tend to be more highly concentrated within a limited number of industrial groupings than their male counterparts, regardless of school enrollment status.

Differences by educational attainment are also apparent. Among male students, there is movement away from agriculture, nondurable manufacturing, and retail trade as one moves from the high school to the college level, with corresponding offsetting shifts toward durable goods manufacturing and professional and related services. Among female students, there is a small shift away from retail trade, a substantial movement away from personal services, and a large shift toward professional and related services as one moves from high school to college. Comparing school drop-outs with non-enrolled high school graduates, we find only small differences among males: graduates are slightly less likely to be in agriculture, construction, business and repair services, and personal services, and slightly more likely to be in manufacturing and retail trade. Among nonenrolled females, graduates appear less frequently in manufacturing, retail trade, and personal services, and are more prevalent in finance, insurance, and real estate as well as in professional and related services.



Wages. Youth wage rates reflect a variety of factors: the educational attainment and prior work experience of youth, the nature of jobs held (occupation, industry, unionization, etc.), region and city size, and race and sex are only some of the factors that will be related to wage rates. Because examination of the relationship between wages and each of these factors using tabular analyses would be most unwieldy, attention will be focused here on a limited number of variables of particular interest-school enrollment status, race, sex, occupation, and industry.

Mean hourly wage rates by school enrollment status, sex, and race jointly are provided in Table 3.4. There is a clear hierarchy of wages by enrollment status: students are paid less than nonstudents, and within each of these two groups those with more schooling receive higher wages. Overall, then, the average wage of high school students is \$2.66, compared to \$3.50 for college students. Among nonstudents high school dropouts are paid an average of \$3.65 per hour, while high school graduates are paid \$4.18.

The overall rank ordering of these four mean wage rates reflects the pattern for males but not for females: within each race group, female college students earn more on average than their dropout counterparts. Since students are less attached to the work force than dropouts (as measured, say, by current hours of work or by job tenure) it can be said



This and subsequent tables on wages are restricted to respondents for whom the calculated hourly rate of pay is at least \$0.25 and does not exceed \$10.00.

Table 3.4 Mean Wage Rates, by School Enrollment Status, Sex and Race (in dollars)

Enrollment		Female			Male		Total
status	Black	Hispanic	White	Black.	Hispanic	White	Average
High school dropout	2.82	3.14	2.99	3.57	3.93	4.13	3.66
High school student	2.74	2.63	2.37	3.00	2.99	2.85	2.66
College student	3.48	3.53	3.21	3.32	3.76	3.84	3.50
Nonenrolled high school graduate	3.53	3.63	3.65	4.28	4.43	4.79	4.18
Total	3.24	3.22	3.07	3.57	3.70	3.84	3.47

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979 who were employed on the interview date, and for whom the calculated hourly rate of pay is at least \$0.25 and does not exceed \$10.00. (N=16,360,000)

Table 3.5 Female Mean Wage Rates as Percentages of Male Mean Rates, by Race and School Enrollment Status

Enrollment status	Black	Hispanic	White
High school dropout	79.0	79.9	72.4
High school student	91.3	88.0	83.2
College student	104.8	93.9	83.6
Nonenrolled high school graduate  Total	82.5 90.8	81.9 87.0	76.2 79.9

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-1 on January 1, 1979 who were employed on the interview date, and for whom the calculated hourly rate of pay is at least \$0.25 and does not exceed \$10.00. (N=16,360,000)



that for males the market values work attachment more heavily than additional schooling, while for females the reverse is true. Alternatively, it appears that female dropouts, much more than their male counterparts, are shunted into low-paying, low-opportunity jobs.

Focusing specifically on sex differences in wage rates, it is clear that in general young men are paid more than young women. This statement is true for each race/enrollment status group, with the single exception of black college students (see Table 3.5). At the same time, consideration of female/male wage ratios by race and enrollment status reveals some interesting differences.

First, the relative wages of minority women are consistently higher than those of white women. This reflects the fact that white males are generally paid more than their minority counterparts, while there is no such race difference among females (who are, for the most part, paid less than minority males). Second, the sex differences in average wage rates are distinctly smaller among students: white female students are paid about 83 percent of what white male students receive, while among nonstudents the corresponding ratio is about three-fourths. For minorities the female relative wage is 80 percent among those not in school compared to more than 90 percent among students. Thus, when labor force attachment is generally weak--as it is among students--young women do relatively better in terms of wage rates; while among those for whom work attachment is generally strong, women appear to be at a distinct disadvantage compared to



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>This statement is meant only to describe the comparison between high school dropouts and college students, in which there is a clear trade-off between work attachment and educational attainment.

men. The extent to which this pay disadvantage reflects factors such as weaker work attachment of women or sex discrimination in the labor market remains to be seen, and more sophisticated multivariate analyses are required. However, the data in Tables 3.4 and 3.5 suggest that such analyses would be most desirable.

Wage ratios of blacks and Hispanics relative to whites are shown separately by sex and by schoo! enrollment status in Table 3.6. As noted previously, while minority males generally receive lower wages on average than their white counterparts, this is not true for females. In addition, mean wage rates of Hispanic youth are higher than those of black youth for high school dropouts, college students, and nonenrolled high school graduates of both sexes. Among high school students, race differences in wages manifest a different pattern: blacks receive the highest hourly wage and whites the lowest, among males as well as females. Again, then, we find interesting differences which cannot be accounted for with the present tabular analyses, but which merit further study using more sophisticated analytical techniques.

rates of pay by occupation and industry (Table 3.7). Differences between these and the corresponding rates for the adult work force largely appear to reflect two factors: the lack of experience and hence skills of much of the youth labor force, and the impact of collective bargaining coverage. Thus, for example, youth in craft occupations receive the highest average wage, followed by operatives, professional and technical workers, and managers and officials, respectively. The higher pay of those in blue-collar



Table 3.6 Black and Hispanic Mean Wage Rates as Percentages of White Mean Wage Rates, by Sex and School Enrollment Status

Enrollment status		male	Ma	1e
	Black/White	Hispanic/White	Black/White	Hispanic/White
High school dropout	94.3	105.0	86.4	95.2
High school student	115.6	111.0	105.3	104.9
College student	108.4	110.0	86.5	97.9
Nonenrolled high school graduate Total average	96.7 105.5	99.5 104.9	89.4 93.0	92.5 96.4
			23.0	30.4

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979 who were employed on the interview date, and for whom the calculated hourly rate of pay is at least \$0.25 and does not exceed \$10.00. (N=16,360,000)



Table 3.7 Mean Wage Rates, by Occupation and Industry

A. Mean Wage Rate, by Occupation B. Mean Wage Rate, by Industry

		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
Occupation	Mean (\$)	Industry	Mean (\$)
Professional, technical	4.17	Agriculture	2.96
Managers, administrators	3.70	Mining	5.26
Sales workers	3.06	Construction	4.75
Clerical	3.44	Manufacturing durable goods	4.81
Craft and kindred workers	4.53	Manufacturing nondurable goods	3.61
Operatives, except transportation	4.19	Transportation	4.70
Transport operatives	4.23	Wholesale trade	3.82
Laborers, except farm	3.60	Retail trade	3.20
Farmers	*	Finance, insurance and real estate	3.61
Farm laborers	2.58	Business and repair services	3.45
Service workers, except private household	3.16	Personal services	2.06
Private household workers	1.37	Entertainment and recreation services	3.26
		Professional and related services	3.27
		Public administration	3.93

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979 who were employed on the interview date, and for whom the calculated hourly rate of pay is at least \$0.25 and does not exceed \$10.00. (N=16,360,000)



jobs undoubtedly reflects the effects of unionization on wages in these occupations, while the relatively low pay of those in the higher-status white-collar occupation groups stems in large part from their lack of wor's experience and skills.<sup>4</sup>

At the other end of the wage scale the ranking of occupations is more familiar: pay is lowest by far for private household works. (most of whom are female high school students), followed by farm laborers (the majority of whom are male high school students). The average hourly wage for both of these groups is well below the minimum hourly wage of \$2.90 that was in effect at the time of the survey. Sales workers are about 5 percent above the minimum, while the mean hourly pay of scrvice workers approaches 10 percent above the minimum wage. Both of these latter occupation groups constitute major sectors of student employment.

The pattern for youth of mean wage rates by industry appears to approximate more closely the general industrial wage structure. The most highly paid youth are those in mining, durable goods manufacturing, construction, and transportation—all heavily unionized industries. Paralleling the occupational wage structure of youth, pay is lowest by far for those in personal services and next lowest for those employed in agriculture. Youth in retail trade, entertainment and recreation services, and professional and related services are the next lowest—paid groups, being paid an average wage just above 10 percent higher than the minimum wage.



These white-collar workers are at the bottom of the wage ladders within their respective occupational groups, working as low-level managers and more as technical workers than as professionals.

# Hours, Wages, and Occupational Discributions Controlling for Sex, Race, and Enrollment Status

In this section cables are provided chowing usual weekly hours of work, occupational distributions, and mean wage rates of employed youth by sex and race jointly, separately by enrollment status group. A wide variety of race and sex differences are evident in these tables. Among employed dropoutr, nearly 90 percent of Hispanic youth and 75 percent of black youth are employed full-time (Table 3.8). A sex difference in the proportion of full-time workers is apparent only for white dropouts--67 percent of employed females and 83 percent of employed males normally work full-time. Thus, among employed female dropouts whites are least likely to work full-time while among their male counterparts that distinction goes to blacks.

Hours of work are generally lowest among high school students, and they are somewhat lower for whites than for minority youth (Table 3.9). For each race group females work somewhat fewer hours than males. Employed college students (Table 3.10) manifest race and sex differences in hours of work that are similar to those among high school students—viz., whites work fewer hours than minority youth (particularly among females) and females work fewer hours than males (particularly so for whites and, to a lesser degree, Hispanics). The sex difference in hours of work is generally larger among college students than among high school students.

While this sex difference persists as one moves to nonenrolled high school graduates, the race difference does not (Table 3.11).

Among Hispanic and white graduates, males clearly work more hours that females. However, race differences in usual hours worked are negligible among females, and among male graduates whites are most likely to be working full-time while blacks clearly work the fewest average number of hours per week



Table 3.8 Usual Hours Worked by High School Dropouts, by Sex and Race (Percentage distributions)

Usual hours				Male			Total
worked	Black	Hispanic	White	Black	Hispanic	White	Total
0-19	12.6	3.1	9.3	8.4	3.1	5.6	6.8
20-34	14.1	9.2	24.0	17.3	8.4	11.7	15.7
35 or more	73.2	87.7	66.7	74.4	88.5	82.7	77.5
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979 who were employed high school dropouts on the interview date. (N=2,150,000)

Table 3.9 Usual Hours Worked by High School Students, by Sex and Race (Percentage distributions)

Usual hours				Male			Total
worked	Black	Hispanic	White	Black	Hispanic	White	Total
0-19	61.0	63.5	67.7	57.1	51.6	57.1	61.3
20-34	28.4	27.4	28.3	34.3	38.6	33.9	31.6
35 or more	10.6	9.1	4.0	8.6	9.7	9.0	7.1
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979, who were employed high school students on the interview date. (N=5,990,000)



Table 3.10 Usual Hours Worked by College Students, by Sex and Race
(Percentage distributions)

Usual hours		Female		]	Male		Total
worked	Black	Hispanic	Whit:	Black	Hispanic	White	Total
0-19	45.2	48.6	<b>51.</b> 4	26.8	30.8	38.7	44.5
20-34	16.9	28.2	35.2	40.4	37.0	31.0	32.4
35 or more	38.0	23.2	13.5	32.9	32.2	30.3	23.0
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979 who were employed college students on the interview date. (N=2,610,000)

Table 3.11 Usual Hours Worked by Nonenrolled High School Graduates, by Sex and Race

(Percentage distributions)

Usual hours		Female			Male		Total
worked	Black	Hispanic	White	Black	Hispanic	White	Total
0-19	7.5	6.3	7.2	3.7	3.5	1.5	4.5
20-34	12.4	16.1	14.8	12.9	7.2	7.0	11.1
35 or more	80.0	77.6	78.1	83.4	89.3	91.6	84.4
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979 who were employed, non-enrolled high school graduates on the interview date.
(N=5,810,000)



Occupational distributions show distinct differences by sex (as noted previously) and also by race. Among dropouts, for example, minority females are more likely to be working as operatives or as farm laborers and less likely to be employed as service workers than their white counterparts (Table 3.12). Blacks and whites are distinctly more likely than Hispanics to be private household workers. Minority males are somewhat more likely to be employed as service workers or as farm laborers and (for blacks especially) less likely to be employed in craft jobs than white males. Over 37 percent of black male dropouts work as laborers (including farm laborers). These differences in occupational distributions appear to explain a portion of the differences in average hourly wage rates.

As indicated in Table 3.13, employed minority high school students of both sexes are more likely than their white counterparts to be working in service occupations and (to a lesser degree) in clerical occupations. Among female students the most notable difference is in the percentage employed as private household workers: 9 percent of blacks compared with 15 percent of Hispanics and 27 percent of whites. These percentages undoubtedly account for a part of the racial difference in mean wage rates among female high school students. White male students are somewhat more likely to have sales jobs or to be farm workers than their minority counterparts.

Among employed college students (Table 3.14), white females are more likely than their minority counterparts to hold upper-level white-collar jobs or to be service workers, and considerably less likely to be in clerical occupations (40 percent of whites versus 54 percent of Hispanics and 66 percent of blacks). Minority male college students are more likely than



Table 3.12 Occupation and Mean Wage Rates of Employed High School Dropouts, by Sex and Race

Occupation		Female			Male	
	Black	Hispanic	White	Black	Hispanic	White
Professional and technical, managers and administrators	0.0	1.6	3.8	2.3	1.2	3.5
Sales and clerical workers	23.3	20.4	25.6	6.7	4.8	3.7
Craftspersons	5.9	2.3	2.4	7.2	17.8	20.0
Operatives	28.6	40.1	25.0	27.7	35.8	33.7
Laborers	0.0	0.0	4.8	29.2	15.9	23.0
Farm laborers	7.8	8.6	0.5	8.1	7.6	3i
Service workers	20.3	20.3	27.2	18.8	16.8	13.7
Private household workers	14.2	6.7	10.6	0.0	0.0	1.2
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	. 100
Mean hourly wage (in collars)	2.82	3.14	2.99	3.57	3.93	.13

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979 who were employed high school dropouts on the interview date. (N=2,150,000)



Table 3.13 Occupation and Mean Wage Rates of Employed High School Students, by Sex and Race

Occupation		Female			Male	
	Black	Hispanic	White	Black	Hispanic	Wilte
Professional and technical, managers and administrators	3.8	0.0	2.4	2.1		
and administrators	3.0	0.0	2.4	3.1	2.9	2.1
Sales	12.6	6.6	9.3	5.0	5.9	13.1
Clerical	27.0	32.4	22.0	5.4	7.5	: 3
Craftspersons and operatives	2.2	1.5	3.4	14.3	16.9	16.3
Laborers	2.1	2.0	1.9	27.6	20.9	24.7
Farm workers	0.0	1.2	2.1	4.3	7,5	9.7
Service workers	43.6	41.4	30.9	39.7	57.0	27.7
Private household workers	8.6	14.9	28.0	0.6	1.5	1.1
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Mean hourly wage (in dollars)	2.74	2.63	2.37	3.00	2.99	2.85

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979 who were employed high school students on the interview date. (N=5,990,000)



Table 3.14 Occupation and Mean Wage Rates of Employed College Students, by Sex and Race

Occupation		Female			Male	
	Black	Hispanic	White	Black	Hispanic	White
Professional and technical, managers and administrators	3.4	4.9	10.7	15.9	21.1	14.8
Sales.	4.0	13.5	7.5	3.9	3.5	8.2
Clerical	65.7	54.3	39.8	26.2	24.1	15.3
Craftspersons	0.0	0.0	0.9	0.0	16.6	11.8
Operatives	4.5	4.7	3.7	8.2	16.8	7.2
Laborers	1.4	2.5	3.0	9.7	6.8	13.2
Service workers	21.0	17.5	30.ა	36.1	12.0	27.6
Farm workers and private household workers	0.0	2.7	4.1	0.0	0.0	1.9
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Mean hourly wage (in dollars)	3.48	3.53	3.21	3.32	3.76	3.84

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979 who were employed college students on the interview date. (N=2,610,000)



whites to be in clerical jobs or (especially for Hispanics) in upper-level white-collar jobs, and less likely to be in sales occupations or working as laborers. Blacks are least likely to be working as craftspersons and most likely to be employed as service workers, while for Hispanics exactly the opposite is true—they are most likely to be in craft jobs and least likely to be service workers.

Finally, it is evident from Table 3.15 that among employed high school graduates the occupational distributions of females by race are not very dissimilar. Whites are somewhat more likely to be in upper-level white-collar jobs and less likely to be working as operatives than minority females, and Hispanics are most likely to have sales or clerical jobs and least likely to be service workers. Among male graduates two differences stand out: whites are clearly more likely than minority youth to be in craft jobs (25 percent versus 17 percent) and less likely to be in service jobs (8 percent versus 21 percent). In addition, blacks are less likely than both Hispanics and whites to be in higher-status white-collar jobs and more likely to be working as laborers. Here as above, then, consideration of the occupational distributions of employed youth, controlling for enrollment status, helps account (in part) for differences in hourly wage rates.

In describing the jobs youth have, attention has been focused so far on wages, hours, occupation, and industry. The survey provides data on a number of other significant characteristics of the jobs held by young people. These include objective characteristics of the jobs themselves, such as collective bargaining coverage and class of worker, as well as subjective characteristics—job qualities as perceived by youth and job satisfaction.



Table 3.15 Occupation and Mean Wage Rates of Nonenrolled High School Graduates, by Sex and Race

Occupation		Female			Male	
	Black	Hispanic	White	Black	Hispanic	White
Professional and technical, managers and administrators	3.4	<b>3.</b> 5	9.2	5.2	9.8	9.1
Sales	5.5	12.4	8.1	2.7	2.9	3.2
Clerical	46.7	54.8	46.5	<b>7</b> .8	6.2	<b>6.</b> 8
Craftspersons	1.6	1.5	1.6	18.1	16.3	24.9
Operatives	16.9	10.2	8.7	25.7	28.0	29.0
Laborers	3.1	2.0	2.5	18.5	13.7	15.4
Service workers	21.0	10.5	21.0	21.5	20.9	<b>7.</b> 8
Farm workers and private household workers	1.8	5.2	2.3	0.6	2.2	3.9
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Mean hourly wage (in dollars)	3.53	3.63	3.65	4.28	4.43	4.79

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979 who were employed, non-enrolled high school graduates on the interview date.

(N=5,810,000)



Objective Job Characteristics. Collective bargaining directly affects the wages of approximately 13 percent of the youth work force. This percentage, well below the figure for the economy as a whole, <sup>5</sup> largely reflects the part-time nature of much youth employment. Among those working less than 20 hours per week fewer than 6 percent are unionized while the figure rises to 12 percent for those working 20-34 hours per week and to 19 percent for full-time workers. Fewer than a tenth of students have jobs covered by collective bargaining agreements, while proportionately twice as many nonstudents are covered. Jobs held by males are more likely to be unionized than those held by females (17 percent compared to 9 percent, respectively), and blacks are most heavily unionized (19 percent) while Hispanics are least likely to be in jobs where wages are set by collective bargaining (11 percent). By region, youth are somewhat more unionized in the North (16 percent) than in the South or West (10 percent).

Examination of the distribution of the youth work force by class of worker reveals that in comparison with the total civilian work force youth are under represented in government employment and in self-employment.

Approximately 8 percent and 4 percent of employed youth are in these two classes, respectively. With regard to employment in the public sector, it may be noted that minority youth are somewhat disproportionately represented in government employment: nearly 15 percent of employed Hispanic youth and 17.5 percent of employed black youth hold public sector jobs, compared with about 7 percent of white youth. This phenomenon results



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>Rees reports that in 1972 union members represented 26.7 percent of nonagricultural employment, while those in unions and employee associations (which often engage in collective bargaining) accounted for 29.8 percent of such employment. See Albert Rees, <u>The Economics of Trade Unions</u>, p. 11.

from higher participation rates of minority youth in government sponsored job and work experience programs.

Employed respondents were asked about the availability of certain fringe benefits on their jobs: medical insurance, life insurance, and paid vacations. The majority of employed youth do <u>not</u> have access to these benefits. As indicated in Table 3.16 below, however, this largely reflects the fact that the majority of employed youth are working part-time. The percentage of youth with access to these fringe benefits increases monotonically with

Table 3.16 Percent with Access to Selected Fringe Benefits, by Usual Hours Worked per Week

Usual hours		with access to:		
<u>worked</u>	Medical insurance	Life insurance	Paid vacations	
1-19	12.0	3.5	10.6	
20-34	28.0	28.0 15.9		
35 or more	66.4	48.4	76.3	
Total	41.5	27.7	47.2	

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979 who were employed on the interview date. (N=16,560,000)

hours of work. Among youth employed full-time nearly half are covered by life insurance, two-thirds by medical insurance, and three-fourths receive paid vacations.

An additional aspect of interest with regard to the jobs held by youth concerns travel time to work. Employed youth were asked how long it usually takes them to get from home to work. Over a third of employed youth live



within five minutes of where they work, and the majority works less than 15 minutes from home. In comparison with the total civilian labor force, travel time to work is distinctly shorter for youth. Among all employed workers just over one-fifth travel fewer than 10 minutes to work, and more than one-fourth travel 30 minutes or more to work. As indicated by Table 3.17 below, time to work is significantly related to enrollment status. Nearly half of employed high school students and more than a third of

Table 3.17 Travel Time to Work, by Enrollment Status

(Percentage distributions)

Minutes between home and work	High school dropout	High school student	College student	Nonenrolled high school student	Total
0-5	24.4	46.2	36.2	23.8	<b>3</b> 3.8
6-14	18.7	22.5	22.3	21.9	21.8
15-29	32.8	23.2	25.0	35.8	29.2
30 or more	24.2	8.1	16.6	18.5	15.2
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979 who were employed on the interview date. (N=16,560,000)

employed college students work within 5 minutes of home, while this is true of fewer than a fourth of nonstudents. Sixty to seventy percent of students live within 15 minutes of work. Conversely, the majority of those not in school travel 15 minutes or more to work, and trips of half an hour or more are not uncommon.



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>Figures taken from Table L of "The Journey to Work in the United States: 1975," Current Population Reports Special Studies, P-23, No. 99, U.S. Department of Commerce, July 1979.

Examination of time to work cross-classified by sex and race jointly reveals that minorities spend more time traveling to work than whites: 36 percent of whites are within 5 minutes of work compared with 22 percent of minorities, and 13 percent of whites travel 30 minutes or more to work compared with 27 percent of minorities. Sex differences in travel time are generally small except that the long commute (30 or more minutes) is consistently more prevalent among males than among females.

While some portion of the differences by race may stem from differences in school enrollment rates, it also seems likely that jobs for youth may be more conveniently located for whites than for blacks or Hispanics. This could help explain the greater tendency among minority youth to claim that lack of transportation was a problem in getting a good job (see "Perceptions of Discrimination and Other Barriers to Employment"). In any case, to the extent that existing jobs are more conveniently located for whites than for minorities, programs aimed at equalizing access to jobs for youth would do well to incorporate policies designed to stimulate job creation in areas where minority youth live.

Attitudes Toward Jobs. Besides objective characteristics of the jobs held by youth, their attitudes toward their jobs are also of interest. Employed respondents were asked a series of questions dealing with certain characteristics of their jobs. Specifically, each employed respondent was asked how much opportunity the job gave him/her: 1) to do a number of different things; 2) to deal with other people; 3) for independent thought or action; 4) to develop close friendships in the job; and 5) to do a job from beginning to end (i.e., to do the whole job). In addition, questions



were also asked concerning how much the job gives the respondent the feeling that: 6) the job itself is very significant or important in the broader scheme of things; and 7) he/she knows whether or not the job is being performed well or poorly. For each of these seven items a five-point response scale was used, ranging from "a minimum amount" (1) through "a moderate amount" (3) to "a maximum amount" (5).

Table 3.18 provides the mean values of responses for each of these seven items, stratified by sex, race, school enrollment status, and age. Overall, employed youth were most positive about the feedback and opportunity to do the job from beginning to end, and least positive about the variety of tasks and opportunities for independent thought or action. Sex differences in perceptions of job characteristics are generally quite small, although young women are more likely to have jobs in which they deal with other people. Whites are more positive about their jobs than minority youth for each and every characteristic; blacks and Hispanics have generally similar perceptions.

Among students, those in college are generally more positive about their jobs than those in high school, although except for the first two items the differences are fairly small. Comparing school dropouts and nonenrolled high school graduates, we find that the latter see their jobs as providing greater opportunities on every characteristic. Here as elsewhere, then, we observe a clear labor market "penalty" imposed on those youth who fail to complete high school. Finally, there is a general tendency for older youth to perceive greater opportunities in their jobs than their younger counterparts. Perhaps reflecting greater maturity and previous work experience for older youth, these age differences are most pronounced concerning opportunities to do a number of different things and to deal with other people.



Table 3.18 Mean Values of Job Characteristics, by Sex, Race, Enrollment Status and Age

,	Se	!		Race		Eni	rollment	status		<del></del>	Ac	e		
Job   characteriJtic <sup>a</sup>	Female	Male	Black	Hispanic	White	High school dropout	school	student	Nonenrolled high school graduate	14-15	16-17	18-19	20-22	Total
(1) VARIETY	2.91	2.98	2.63	2.81	2.99	2.79	2.75	2.54	3.21	2.49	2.81	2.98	3.13	2.95
(2) PUBLIC	3.65	3.41	3.22	3.24	3.57	3.25	3.40	3.66	3.67	3.10	3.45	3.57	3.64	3.52
(3) INDEPENDENCE	3.02	3.15	2.87	2.84	3.12	2.99	2.98	3.05	3.24	3.01	2.92	3.07	3.22	3.08
(4' FRIENDS	3.34	3.36	3.24	3.19	3.37	3.28	3.24	3.35	3.48	3.04	3.27	3.42	3.42	3.35
(5) WHC' 5JOB	3.74	3.80	3.55	3.50	3.81	3.58	3.74	3.76	3.87	3.75	3.72	3.78	3.80	3.77
(6) SIGNIFICANCE	3.14	3.17	3.06	3.08	3.17	3.18	3.02	2.97	3.37	2.98	3.01	3.15	3.28	3.16
(7) FEEDBACK	3.76	3.76	3.59	3.57	3.79	3.66	3.71	3.76	3.84	3.62	3.69	3.78	3.81	3.76

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>See text, pages 67-68, for a description of these characteristics.

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979 who were employed on date of interview. (N=16,560,000)





The perceptions of employed youth concerning the value of the skills being learned and the chances for promotion on the current job are consistent with a number of the observations made above. Respondents were asked to indicate how well a series of statements described their jobs. Two of the statements of particular interest here were "The skills you are learning would be valuable in getting a better job" and "The chances for promotion are good." Cross-classification of responses to these statements with enrollment status or with hours of work suggests that enrolled youth with part-time jobs are engaged in less skill acquisition and more likely to be in dead-end jobs than their nonenrolled full-time counterparts. In addition, among nonenrollees those who had completed high school were more likely to say they were acquiring valuable skills than the drop-outs.

Thus, over three-fourths of nonenrolled high school graduates and over three-fifths of drop-outs agreed with the first statement that they were acquiring valuable skills, and in each case the majority of those in agreement described the statement as "very true." Among employed students, by contrast, the proportion in agreement was lower and the strength of agreement was distinctly weaker. Similarly, among those working fewer than 20 hours a week nearly half disagreed with the statement while among those working full-time a like proportion characterized the statement as very true and another 30 percent replied "somewhat true." The majority of employed students and of part-time workers did not feel that promotion opportunities in their present jobs were good, while over 60 percent of out-of-school youth and about two-thirds of full-time workers felt they had good promotion prospects.



Response catagories were "very true," "somewhat true," "not too true," and "not at all true."

As noted above, the two statements on skill acquisition and on promotion opportunities were part of a series of statements. The ten items making up the series constitute a scale designed to measure job satisfaction. With all statements phrased in a positive way, and "very true" responses scored as 4, "somewhat true" scored as 3, and so forth, the overall mean and 13 on the scale suggests that by and large youth are fairly well satisfied with their jobs. Examination of the means of the job satisfaction scale by consequence, and enrollment status reveals surprisingly little variation. Older youth, females, and whites all have higher job satisfaction scored than their younger, male, and minority counterparts; and nonenrolled high school graduates have higher scores than students who in turn have higher scores than high school dropouts. In all of these cases, however, the differences among means are minimal, never exceeding 0.1.

In addition to the job satisfaction scale, there was also a single global job satisfaction question: "How do you feel about the job you have now? Do you like it very much, like it fairly we'dislike it somewhat, or dislike it very much?" The overall mean response to this question was 3.14-- on the "very much" side of "like it fairly well." Thus, the mean of the single global question was essentially identical to the mean of the 10-item scale. As with the scale, variation in the means by age, sex, race, and school enrollment was somewhat limited, and generally in the same direction.

Table 3.19 provides information on responses to the global job satisfaction question for all employed youth (Panel A) and for employed high school dropouts (Panel B). For all youth the principal difference is in the division between "like it very much" and "like it fairly well": whites are more likely to opt for the former response while minority youth are more



Table 3.19 Job Satisfaction, by Sex and Race
(Percentage distributions)

How do you feel about the job	Fem	ale			 Male	<del></del>	
you have now?	Black	Hispanic	White	B1ack	Hisparic	White	Total
All employed youth							
Like it very much	26.7	30.6	37.5	24.8	24.8	33.2	33.9
Like it fairly well	56.9	54.5	47.6	56.5	55.8	50.7	50.0
Dislike it somewhat	12.6	12.4	10.8	13.7	14.8	73.1	12.2
Dislike it very much	3.8	2.5	4.1	5.0	4.7	3.6	3.9
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Mean	3.06	3.13	3.18	3.01	3.00	₹.13	3.14
High school dropouts							
Like it very much	11.6	17.8	33.2	24.5	23.6	36.3	72.0
Dislike it some- what or very much	26.9	25.6	14.9	24.1	17.1	15 5	17 O
Mean	2.71	2.87	3.14	2.91	3.00	3.16	5.14

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979 who were employed on date of interview. (N=16,560,000)



likely to choose the latter. However, in each of the six groups 80 to 85 percent of employed youth indicated that they liked their jobs and the maximum difference in means just exceeds 0.1. Among dropouts, however, the race differences are more pronounced, especially among females and particularly so for blacks. Thus, while job satisfaction among youth is generally high and stable across various subgroups of the employed youth population, minority dropouts (with the exception of Hispanic males) are generally less likely to be highly satisfied with their jobs and distinctly more likely to dislike their jobs. This represents one more piece of evidence suggestive of the difficulties faced by dropouts in the labor market.



## CHAPTER 4

## PATTERNS OF YOUTH EMPLOYMENT IN 1978

Extensive data on jobs held since January 1, 1978 were gathered, permitting one to create detailed work histories for respondents employed since that date. In this chapter we focus on calendar 1978 and examine three basic characteristics of youth employment patterns: the number of jobs held, the number of weeks worked, and the number of spells of nonemployment.

Table 4.1 shows the distribution of number of jobs held in 1978 crossclassified by a variable measuring school enrollment status in 1978 and, for nonenrolled youth, differentiating dropouts from those who had (at least) graduated from high school. This differentiation highlights the disparate employment patterns of these two groups: dropouts were least likely to have worked (28 percent had no job in 1978) while nonenrolled graduates were most likely to have worked (almost 90 percent held one or more jobs). Youth who were enrolled for only a portion of 1978 (i.e., school leavers--those who either graduated or dropped out of school during the year) were almost as likely as nonenrolled graduates to have held at least one job. Among those who did work, the mean number of jobs held during 1978 was 15 percent higher for those who left school during the year than for nonenrolled graduates. This presumably reflects, at least in part, the job shopping and high turnover associated with the transition from school to work. One out of four youth enrolled throughout the year held no job, while nearly 60 percent of the students who worked held one job and another 30 percent held two jobs. Overall, more than onefifth of the youth population (16 and over) remained witside of employment during 1978, while 44 percent held one job and 35 percent held two or more jobs. Among those who were employed, then, 55 percent held one job while 30 percent held two jobs and 15 percent held three or more jobs.



Table 4.1 Number of Jobs Held during 1978, by Enrollment Status during 1978

(Percentage distributions)

^!umber of jobs held during 1978	High School dropouts	High School graduates	Left School in 1978	Enrolled in 1978	Total
0	27.6	10.6	12.4	24.6	20.7
1	40.3	51.4	40.3	43.2	43.9
2	19.7	26.1	27.2	22.6	23.5
3 or more	12.5	12.0	20.2	9.5	11.9
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100
Mean	1.23	1.43	1.61	1.20	1.30
Employed mean <sup>a</sup>	1.69	1.59	1.83	1.59	1.64



an number of jobs held by all those who were employed during the year.

THIVERSE: Civilians age 16-22 on interview date. (N=25,570,000).

The number of weeks during which the respondent was employed in 1978 is shown in Table 4.2, cross-classified by 1978 enrollment/attainment status. The percentages for "worked zero weeks" represent those individuals who held no jobs. At the other end of the distribution, nearly 38 percent of all youth worked three-fourths of the year or more (more than two-thirds of these individuals were employed throughout the year), while approximately 14 percent of youth were employed for 1-13, 14-26, and 27-39 weeks. The adverse employment experience of high school dropouts is suggested by the fact that only one third of them worked 40 weeks or more in 1978, compared to two-thirds of nonenrolled high school graduates. For all dropouts and all graduates, the mean number of weeks worked was 24 and 39, respectively. Even if the comparison is restricted to those who worked during the year, we find that three-fourths of the graduates were employed 40 weeks or more compared to fewer than half of the dropouts. This difference in weeks worked in conjunction with the slightly higher average number of jobs held by employed dropouts (see the last row of Table 4.1) means that weeks of employment per job are distinctly lower for dropouts than for their graduate counterparts (for those who worked, the mean weeks per job are 20 and 27, respectively). It thus appears that the employment experience of dropouts is relatively quite unstable, with more frequent job turnover, shorter job tenure, and longer spells between jobs.

Over 40 percent of those who left school in 1978 worked 40 or more weeks during the year. Since almost 90 percent of school leavers were employed, however, this group represents just under half of employed school leavers. In fact, if one looks only at those who were employed during the year, the distributions across the four "weeks employed" categories are quite similar

 $<sup>^{1}</sup>$ Among workers, 29 percent of dropouts and 58 percent of graduates were employed throughout the entire year.



Table 4.2 Number of Weeks Employed during 1978, by Enrollment Status during 1978

Number of weeks employed during 1978	High School dropouts	High School graduates	Left school in 1978	Enrolled in 1978	Total
0	27.6	10.6	12.4	24.6	20.7
1-13	12.8	6.3	11.0	17.6	14.1
14-26	13.4	6.4	17.9	14.7	13.6
27-39	12.4	9.3	16.3	15.0	13.9
40-52	33.8	67.5	42.4	28.0	37.7
Total percent Mean	100 <b>24.</b> 5	100 39.0	100 30.9	100	100 27.4

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 16-22 on interview date. (N=25,570,000).



for dropouts and school leavers<sup>2</sup>, and the mean numbers of weeks worked per job are almost identical--20 and 19 respectively. It would appear, then, that when youth leave school they initially experience job instability and high turnover; subsequently, those who have graduated experience declines in turnover and a relative measure of job stability, while high school dropouts experience continued instability and difficulty in securing desirable jobs.

Those youth enrolled throughout 1978 are generally employed least during the year, as one might anticipate. As noted above, one-fourth of the student group was not employed at all during the year. Of those who were employed, somewhat more than a third worked 40 or more weeks during the year, while nearly a fourth worked only 13 weeks or less; and the mean number of weeks worked per jcb was 19.5. Like dropouts and school leavers, then, working students appear to have low levels of job tenure and high levels of turnover.

The greater turnover behavior of employed students, school dropouts, and school leavers is apparent in Table 4.3, which cross-classifies enrollment/ attainment group with the number of spells of nonemployment during 1978. The table refers only to those individuals employed during the year; consequently, those with zero spells of nonemployment were employed throughout the entire year. Nearly 60 percent of working nonemploted high school graduates were continuously employed, compared with about 28-30 percent of employed students, dropouts, and school leavers. Conversely, fewer than 15 percent of graduates experienced two or more spells of nonemployment compared with roughly 35-40 percent of other youth. These data on spells of nonemployment are thus consistent with the data previously discussed in this chapter, indicating that instability of employment is a principal characteristic of the

<sup>&</sup>quot;Spells" simply measures the number of periods of continous nonemployment during the year. It was not possible to distinguish periods or unemployment from periods out of the labor force.



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>These terms are used here to refer to the first and third enrollment/attainment groups. Again, most leavers are graduates, while some are dropouts (conventionally defined).

Table 4.3 Number of Spells of Nonemployment during 1978, by Enrollment Status during 1978

Number of spells of nonemployment	High School dropouts	High School graduates	Left school in 1978	Enrolled in 1978	Total
0	29.6	58.6	29.6	27.5	34.3
1	35.7	28.1	38.2	32.2	32.7
2 or more	34.6	13.2	32.1	40.4	33.1
Total percent	100	100	700	100	100

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 16-22 on interview date who were employed during 1978. (N=20,280,000)



labor market experience of students, those making the transition from school to work, and those already out of school but whose low educational attainment puts them at a distinct disadvantage in competing for jobs.<sup>4</sup>

While school enrollment/attainment status is a key determinant of youth employment patterns in 1978, there are also a number of noteworthy differences by sex and race in the employment experiences of youth. Table 4.4 shows the relationship between the number of jobs held in 1978 and sex/race group. In general, the data for 1978 are consistent with the 1979 survey week data: females are less likely to have worked in 1978 than males, and minority youth (especially blacks) are less likely to have been employed than their white counterparts. Thirteen percent of white males were not employed during the year, compared with about 22 percent of both white females and Hispanic males, 28 percent of black males, and nearly 40 percent of black and Hispanic females. In general, then, Hispanics are more than 50 percent more likely than whites not to have worked while blacks are almost twice as likely not to have worked; and women are about 50 percent more likely than men not to have been employed.

Conversely, multiple jobholding is more prevalent among whites and (within race groups) among males. Over 40 percent of white males and 35 percent of white females held two or more jobs in 1978, compared to 31 and 25 percent for Hispanic males and females and 27 and 19 percent for black males and females, respectively. It thus appears that high job turnover of youth is distinctly more characteristic of the employment experience of white youth than of their minority counterparts.



At present, those out of the labor force cannot be distinguished from the unemployed; hence, it is not possible to ascertain the degree to which more frequent spells of nonemployment and fewer weeks worked reflect 1) casual labor force attachment or 2) difficulties in finding work.

Table 4.4 Number of Jobs Held in 1978, by Sex and Race

Number of jobs held during		Female			Male		
19 '8	Black	Hispanic	White	Black	Hispanic	White	
0	39.5	37.2	22.5	27.8	22.3	13.0	
1	41.8	38.2	42.4	45.1	46.4	45.9	
2	14.8	18.0	23.7	19.7	21.6	26.1	
3 or more	3.8	6.7	11.3	7.3	9.7	14.9	
						l i	
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	
Mean	0.84	0.97	1.27	1.09	1.22	1.48	
Employed mean <sup>a</sup>	1.39	1.54	1.64	1.52	1.57	1.70	

 $<sup>^{\</sup>mathrm{a}}\mathrm{Mea}\,\mathrm{n}$  number of jobs held by all those who were employed during the year.

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 16-22 on interview date. (N=25,570,000)



The distributions of weeks employed in 1978 by sex/race group are provided in Table 4.5. As with the number of jobs held, the number of weeks worked is greatest for white males followed by white females, and generally least among blacks (particularly black females). Within each sex group, whites are roughly twice as likely as blacks and 30 to 40 percent more likely than Hispanic youth to have been employed 40 weeks or more during the year. If comparisons are restricted to the subset of the youth population with at least some employment during 1978, the race and sex differences are somewhat smaller but still readily apparent. Further, if one controls for enrollment/attainment status in 1978, the differences in employment experience by sex and race take on a wider variety of patterns but still remain quite evident.

The distributions of weeks employed in 1978 by sex/race group controlling for enrollment/attainment status in 1978 are shown in Table 4.6. While the table is admittedly complex, focusing on the mean number of weeks employed and on the extreme groups (0 and 40-52 weeks) permits the reader to readily grasp the different employment patterns of youth by sex, race, and enrollment status.

Beginning with high school dropouts, we note that among males the distribution for Hispanics is quite similar to that for whites, with a majority of both groups employed 40-52 weeks and a mean value for weeks employed of about 34 for both groups. Less than a third of black male dropouts were employed for 40-52 weeks, and whereas fewer than 11 percent of the whites and 17 percent of the Hispanics were not employed during the year, fully 25 percent of the black male dropouts were outside of paid employment throughout 1978. The mean for blacks is only 24 weeks of employment—less than half the year.

Among females nonparticipation is more frequent: a majority of both black and Hispanic dropouts and more than a third of the white dropouts were not employed at all in 1978. Less than one-fourth of black female dropouts were employed for more than 13 weeks during the year,



Table 4.5 Number of Weeks Employed during 1978, by Sex and Race

(Percentage distributions)

Number of weeks employed	Female			Male		
during 1978	Black	Hispanic	White	Black	Hispanic	White
0	39.5	37.2	22.5	27.8	22.3	13.0
1-13	19.0	17.9	13.3	19.2	15.9	12.8
14-26	14.3	10.9	14.0	16.4	12.1	12.8
27-39	10.9	8.8	13.8	11.3	14.0	15.3
40-52	16.4	25.1	36.4	25.2	35.7	46.1
Total percent	100	100 18 <b>.9</b>	100	100	100 26.2	100 31.9
	10.1	10.3	20.0	21.1	20.2	31.9

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 16-22 on interview date (N=25,570,000)



Table 4.6 Weeks Employed during 1978, by 1978 S Educational Attainment, Sex and Race

Enrollment and

(Percentage distributions)

Weeks employed		Female			Male	
during 1978	Black	Hispanic		Black	Hispanic	White
	High	n school di	ropouts, n	t enrol	ed during 1	978
0 1-13 14-26 27-39 40-52	55.3 20.3 13.5 4.0 7.0	50.0 12.4 9.3 9.9 18.4	34.3 14.7 14.7 13.2 23.1	25.3 12.8 18.2 11.6 32.2	8.0 10.1 11.0	10.4 9.6 11.7 14.9 53.5
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Mean	8.8	15.3	19.8	24.3	34.0	34.6
		None	enrolled H	igh schoo	l graduates	
0 1-13 14-26 27-39 40-52	24.1 10.9 13.4 13.6 38.0	19.2 14.3 3.5 5.4 57.5	15.2 7.8 7.5 8.5 61.0	9.8 6.2 17.7 9.0 57.4	12.4 11.9 3.1 17.0 55.6	2.3 3.1 3.1 9.5 81.9
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Mean	27.3	32.2	35.8	35.1	35.3	45.7
			eft schoo	during	1978	
0 1-13 14-26 27-39 40-52	30.8 18.6 16.8 14.9 18.9	27.6 17.7 12.1 6.5 36.0	11.9 9.6 20.2 15.9 42.4	23.2 14.4 15.7 15.2 31.4	11.5 16.6 12.2 26.3 33.5	6.1 9.4 17.2 17.2 50.1
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Mean	19.0	23.6	31.2	24.5	29.0	34.8
	Enrolled in school throughout 1978					
0 1-13 14-26 27-39 40-52 Total percent Mean	42.0 20.8 13.9 10.8 12.6 100 14.3	38.4 21.8 13.4 9.9 16.5 100 15.8	25.8 16.1 14.8 15.4 27.9 100 23.3	33.8 25.3 15.9 10.7 14.4 100 15.9	29.1 19.7 14.5 11.7 25.0 100 20.7	18.1 16.9 14.7 16.6 33.7 100 26.8



UNIVERSE: Civilians age 16-22 on interview date. (N=25,570,000)

and whereas 23 percent of white dropouts worked 40 weeks or more and 18 percent of Hispanics did the same, only 7 percent of the black dropouts were employed for as long. Consequently, the mean numbers of weeks of employment for females are about half or less of the corresponding means for males. It is likely that many of these young women have child care and family responsibilities.<sup>5</sup>

The employment experience of nonenrolled high school graduates is distinctly better than that of high school dropouts for five of the six sex/race groups; only among Hispanic males is there little difference in the weeksemployed distributions for dropouts and graduates. Despite the general improvement, sharp differences by race remain. Among males, while roughly 10 percent of black graduates and 12 percent of Hispanic graduates were not employed at all during 1978, the corresponding figure was only 2 percent for white graduates. The percentages employed for 40 weeks or more were 57, 56, and 82; and mean weeks of employment were 36, 35, and 46, respectively. Among female graduates Hispanics worked almost as much as whites (58 and 61 perce t were employed forty or more weeks and 19 and 15 percent did not work in the market, respectively), while blacks worked distinctly less, with only 38 percent employed for more than three-fourths of the year and 24 percent not employed at all. For Hispanics, blacks, and whites, mean weeks of employment were 32, 36, and 27, respectively. Sex differences in work experience in 1978, which were quite large among dropouts, are substantially smaller among graduates, particularly for Hispanics.



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>Almost 44 percent of the young women with children were not employed during 1978, compared with roughly half that percentage for young women without children. While more than a third of this latter group worked forty weeks or more during the year, fewer than a fifth of the young mothers did so. Among young men, by contrast, fathers were three times less likely than males without children not to work at all (5 percent vs. 16 percent) and distinctly more likely to work forty or more weeks (63 percent vs. 42 percent).

The patterns of race and sex differences in weeks of employment for both school leavers and students during 1978 reflect the overall patterns discussed above with reference to Table 4.5. White males are most likely to have worked three-fourths of the year or more and least likely not to have worked at all. White females constitute the second most employed group, followed first by Hispanic males, then by black males and Hispanic females, with black females manifesting the lowest levels of employment activity. Comparison of the weeks employed distributions of school leavers with those of dropouts reveals that among black and white males employment experience is quite similar for the two groups (note that the mean weeks of employment are almost identical within each race), while employment of Hispanic male dropouts exceeds that if their school-leaving counterparts. Among females, by contrast, school leavers are considerably more likely to have been employed than dropouts. with proportionately twice as many individuals employed forty weeks or more and one-third to two-thirds of the percentages not employed at all. Among women, the differences between the distributions for school leavers in 1978 and those for previous dropouts are greatest for whites and smallest for blacks; and the employment patterns of female school leavers are intermediate between those of dropouts and of previous graduates.

Data on spells of nonemployment for workers, cross-classified by sex/
race group (Table 4.7), confirm the observations made above. Nearly 40 percent
of white male workers were employed all year long, as were about a third of
both white female and Hispanic male workers. The corresponding ratios are
about one in four for black males, one in five for Hispanic females, and one in si
for black females. Multiple spells of nonemployment were experienced by almost
45 percent of black workers, compared to 35 percent of Hispanic youth and less
than a third of white youth. The fact that white youth have fewer spells of



Table 4.7 Number of Spells of Nonemployment during 1978, by Sex and Race (Percentage distributions)

Number of spells of	Female			Male		
nonemployment	Black	Hispanic	White	Black	Hispanic	White
0	17.6	21.0	33.5	23.1	34.1	39.2
1	39.7	41.9	35.5	31.4	32.6	29.0
2 or more	42.8	37.0	31.0	45.5	33.3	31.7
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 16-22 on interview date who were employed during 1978. (N=20,280,000)



nonemployment despite their greater frequency of multiple jobholding suggests that movement between jobs is accompanied by considerably more friction for minority youth than for whites.

A final table of interest shows the relationship between family income (excluding respondent's earnings) and youth employment (Table 4.8). The percentage of youth who did not work at all during 1978 declines steadily with household income, from 25 percent for those from households with income under ten thousand dollars to 14 percent for respondents from families with income of twenty thousand dollars or more. There is a corresponding increase in the proportion of youth who were employed for 40 weeks or more as one moves from the low to the high-income group: whereas 25 percent of youth from households with income under five thousand dollars were employed for 40 weeks or more, the corresponding figure for youth from households with income in excess of twenty thousand dollars is 40 percent. Thus, the data suggest that there is an adverse effect of low parental income on youthful employment activity.

The broad picture that emreges from the data in this chapter is one which emphasizes the importance of school enrollment status, educational attainment, race, and sex as influences on youth employment experiences. The job shopping and high turnover that characterize the transition from school to work are evident, as are the problems and disadvantages that confront school dropouts in the labor market. Race and (to a lesser degree) sex differences in the employment activity of students are pronounced, and it appears that these differences persist and frequently widen once youth leave school.



Table 4.8 Number of Weeks Employed during 1978, by Family Income Less Respondent's Earnings

Number of weeks employed during 1978	Less than \$5,000	\$5,000 to \$9,999	\$10,000 to \$19,999	\$20,000 or more
0	24.2	25.5	19.7	14.2
1-13	18.7	17.2	14.8	14.6
14-26	15.1	12.4	14.5	15.2
27-39	16.9	12.8	13.9	15.7
40-52	25.1	32.2	37.1	40.3
Total percent	100	100	100	100

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 16-22 who were not residing in their own households on interview date. (N=19,710,000)



To the extent that early employment experiences (both in and out of school) influence prospects for future success in the labor market, the data presented in this chapter suggest that minority youth in particular (and perhaps also white youth from low-income families) are already disadvantaged even prior to finishing school. From a research perspective, then, it would be most desirable to study the employment activity of students in order to try to explain the differences by race and sex. With regard to policy, programs aimed at facilitating the access of minority students to jobs would seem to have the potential not only for equalizing employment experiences of students across race and sex lines, but also for reducing post-school differences in employment. In addition, greater access to birth control information and to child care services would aid minority females both by reducing the proportion who drop out of school due to pregnancy and by facilitating access to jobs and thus reducing the isolation from the labor market of young mothers.



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>Such experiences should have this effect via increased knowledge of the world of work and acquisition of desirable skills.

## CHAPTER 5

## GOVERNMENT SPONSORED EMPLOYMENT AND TRAINING

One of the major goals of the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth is to assess the impact of government sponsored training on the labor market behavior of youth. An extensive set of probes was employed in the interview to elicit from the youth information about all such programs in which they had ever participated. Programs which were completed prior to January 1, 1978 were separated from those in which youths were enrolled on or after that date. Work-study jobs were distinguished from other subsidized employment and dropped from further consideration, since their goals and participants are quite different from those of programs addressed to employability and training. The programs explicitly probed are listed in Table 5.1. An extensive set of questions was asked for each program which the youth reported as occuring after January 1, 1978, including programs which started before that time, and continued into the new year.



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>For programs in which the youth had participated before that date only minimal information on the dates of enrollment and the name of the program was gathered. There are several justifications for this. First, the massive funding of programs specifically targeted toward youth employment problems had not been available before 1978. Second, the reliability of descriptions of events declines over time, as new events blur older memories. The more detailed and subjective the information required, the less accurate the answers can be expected to be, so that interpretations of material about programs which occured more than one year prior to the interview can only be tentative. A third consideration stems from the age of the respondents. Rapid changes in focus, in the degree to which the youths have matured and in the immediacy of the entry into the labor force, make the types of programs selected more recently by youths more relevant to their needs than are programs from a year or more in the past. Even with this time restriction a number of youths reported participating in several different programs.

Table 5.1 Government Sponsored Employment and Training Programs

Any other government-sponsored skills training program/job Apprenticeship Outreach Program (RTP) CETA jobs, other CETA Summer Program CETA Training Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) On-the-Job Training In-School Work Experience Program Job Corps Job Opportunities in the Business Sector (JOBS) MDTA On-the-Job Training MDTA Training Neighborhood Youth Corps (NYC) In-School Program Neighborhood Youth Corps Out-of-School Program Neighborhood Youth Corps Summer Program Opportunities Industrialization Centers (OIC) Public Employment Program (PEP) Public Service Employment (PSE) SER--Jobs for Progress Summer Program for Economically Disadvantaged Youth (SPEDY) Summer Youth Work Experience Program Urban Conservation Corps Urban League Vocational Rehabilitation Work Experience Young Adult Conservation Corps Youth Community Conservation and Improvement Program (YCCIP) Youth Conservation Corps (YCC) Youth Employment and Training Program (YETP) Youth Incentive Entitlement Pilot Projects (YIEPP)



# COMPARISON OF 1978 GOVERNMENT SPONSORED EMPLOYMENT AND TRAINING PARTICIPANTS WITH NONPARTICIPANTS

Table 5.2 shows the individual characteristics of respondents who participated in government employment and training programs since January 1, 1978, comparing them with nonparticipants and the total sample. Both participation rates and percentage distributions are presented.

Participants are more likely than nonparticipants to be male, and either Hispanic or black. Participants are disproportionately from the middle of the age range, 16-19. In part, this probably reflects the fact that job programs are not as immediately relevant to respondents under age 16. There are several possible explanations for the lower rates of participation for those over 19. It may reflect targeting by agencies, particularly for the large summer youth programs, a lessened need for services among those out of school and presumably successfully entered into the labor market, or a cohort phenomenon of greater use of available services among the younger groups.

Many government programs are targeted at low-income participants, as is reflected in the income distribution shown in Table 5.2. Youth whose families report less than \$10,000 in annual income have a participation rate three times that of those from families making over \$15,000. These figures may understate the degree to which agency services are concentrated on the poor, since they do not take family size into account. Very large families with income above \$10,000 would still meet low income criteria.

Participants are moderately more likely than nonparticipants to be high school dropouts (18 vs. 13 percent), and while 15 percent of the ponparticipants were enrolled in college, only 11 percent of the participants were. It is likely that a number of the college enrollments



Table 5.2 Comparison of Government Employment and Training Participants with Nonparticipants, by Selected Characteristics

(Percentage distributions)

Characteristic	Participation rate per 100 population	Participant since 1-1-78	Nonparticipant since 1-1-78	Total
Sex Female Male Total percent	6.8 7.2	48.3 51.7 100	50.1 49.9 100	50.0 50.0 100
Race Black Hispanic White Total percent	17.4 12.2 4.8	34.0 11.0 55.0 100	12.2 6.0 81.8 100	13.7 6.3 79.9 100
Income Less than \$5,000 5,000 to 9,999 10,000 to 14,999 15,000 or more Total percent	12.3 13.3 9.8 3.8	17.4 31.5 20.6 30.5 100	9.7 16.0 14.8 59.5 100	10.2 17.1 15.2 57.4 100
Age 14-15 16-17 18-19 20-21 Total percent	4.7 8.5 9.3 5.5	14.8 30.1 33.5 21.6 100	22.8 24.6 24.7 28.0 100	22.2 24.9 25.3 27.5 100
Enrollment status High school dropout High school student College student Nonenrolled high school graduate	9.4 7.2 5.4 6.4	17.9 50.6 10.8	12.6 49.4 15.3 22.6	13.0 49.5 15.0
Total percent  Region Northeast North central South West Total percent	7.0 6.6 6.7 8.2	21.3 28.4 31.1 19.2	21.3 30.3 32.2 16.1 100	21.3 30.2 32.1 16.3
Number of programs even None One More than one Total percent	0.0 51.9 60.1	0.3 64.6 35.2 100 <b>111</b>	93.5 4.6 1.8 100	87.1 8.7 4.1 100
Tota1		6.9	93.1	100



Civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979. (N=32,880,000)

of the participants were part of CETA classroom training programs, so the underlying difference in enrollment patterns is understated here.

Regionally, there are only minor differences, with a slight tendency for a higher percent of youth to be participants if they lived in the West.

The estimate of the number of youth who participated in government sponsored employment and training programs since January 1, 1978, is 2,250,000. An additional 2,060,000 reported participating prior to 1978. This leaves an estimated 28,550,000 who have never been in such programs.

One-third of those who have participated since January 1, 1978 had been in more than one program. About 6 percent of the persons who did not report participating in programs in 1978 had nevertheless participated in programs prior to that time. For these youth as well, about a third had participated in multiple programs.

Table 5.3 shows the demographic characteristics of participants in multiple programs. None of the differences are dramatic. High school graduates tended to report more programs per participant than did other enrollment categories. Dropouts were next highest, and college enrollees lowest. Youth living in the North central region were more likely to have participated in more than one program, with over 30 percent in this category. In contrast, only 18 percent of respondents from the West reported more than one program.

All in all, the differences in distributions of respondent characteristics are in the direction of increased services to those most likely to need them. Minority groups participate in a much higher relative proportion than do whites. The increased level of participation among those age 16-19 is consistent with programs addressed to facilitating the transition from school to work. High school dropouts are overrepresented in the participant group, which is appropriate in light of the difficulty of obtaining quality employment without a high school diploma.



Table 5.3 Participants in Multiple Government Employment and Training Programs, by Selected Characteristics

(Percentage distributions)

Chanastanisti		Numbe	er of pr		
Characteristic	Percent of universe	1	2	3-5	Total percent
Sex Female Male	48.5 51.5	72.5 73.9	20.4 18.9	7.0 7.5	100 100
Race Black Hispanic White	34.0 10.7 55.3	73.2 76.5 72.6		6.0 5.3 8.2	100 100 100
Enrollment status High school dropout High school student College student Nonenrolled high school graduate	18.1 49.5 10.4 22.0	71.0 76.4 79.3 65.1		7.2 4.1 3.6 15.7	100 100 100 100
Region Northeast North central South West	21.3 29.7 30.7 18.4	71.8 69.1 76.1 82.5	22.9 19.5 19.3 15.1	5.3 11.5 4.5 2.5	100 100 100 100
Total		73.2	19.6	7.1	100

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-22 on January 1, 1979, who participated in government employment and training programs since January 1, 1978. (N=4,300,000)

#### CHARACTERISTICS OF PARTICIPANTS IN VARIOUS TYPES OF PROGRAMS

Respondents were asked if they had ever participated in government employment and training programs, with specific probes to make sure all possible types of programs were covered. (See Table 5.1.) For programs in which the respondent had participated since January 1, 1978, extensive information was gathered about the services received, the goals of the program, and the individuals' attitudes towards it. Since respondents described each program in which they had participated separately, and since many respondents had been in more than one, the following descriptions are based on enrollments in programs, rather than on respondents. That is, each enrollment is treated as a separate case. The population weights of the individual participants were applied to each of the reported programs.

While it would be desirable to evaluate programs according to administrative category, it is not to be expected that participants will be able to make the necessary distinctions reliably. The variety of administrative configurations, the cooperation and joint funding between agencies of many programs, and the ability of agencies to transfer participants from one program to another for both programmatic and client-centered purposes, all can blur the distinctions between categories for participants. Thus, although participants were asked for both the program operator and the program funding source, these responses will not be reported at this point. However, we can make some differentiations based on relatively reliable questions. First, summer programs can be distinguished from year-round programs using the beginning and ending dates for each program. Historically, summer employment programs have had more limited aims in terms of amount of lasting impact on participant employability and on



immediate entry into the unsubsidized labor force than have the "regular" programs. Second, the school enrollment status of the participant should be associated with the degree to which the programs aim for immediate employability as opposed to more general preparation for later entry into the labor force. Using these two characteristics, we developed four types of programs for comparison: summer programs for unenrolled youths, summer programs for enrolled youths, year-round programs for unenrolled youths, and year-round programs for enrolled youths. For purposes of analysis, the following discussion combines characteristics of participants and characteristics of programs: for example, "summer unenrolled" is a proxy for a short-term program targeted to youth who are out of school and thus ready to enter the labor market. Table 5.4 shows the comparisons of the types of youths enrolled in each type of program.

About equal numbers of enrolled and unenrolled youths participate in year-round programs, with about one-third of the total number of programs falling into each category. The summer program participants, 34 percent of the total, are almost entirely enrolled youths. Only about one-fifth of the summer program participants are not in school.

Looking at the sex distribution, this small group of summer unenrolled participants tends to be disproportionately male, while the year-round unenrolled participants show the largest percentage of female participants. The summer unenrolled program participants are also more likely to be white than are participants in other programs. Black participants are over-represented in the summer enrolled category. The two year-round groups are the ones most likely to be Hispanic.



Table 5.4 Demographic Distributions of Participants, by Type of Program (Percentage distributions)

Demographic characteristic	Summer, not	Summer, enrolled	Year-round not enrolled	Year-round, enrolled	Total
	10.11.04	J.III J I I Cd	cinorred	CIII OT TCU	10001
Sex Female Male Total percent	40.0 60.0 100	48.9 51.1 100	50.5 49.5 100	47.8 52.2 100	48.5 51.5 100
Race Black Hispanic White Total percent	28.2 6.6 65.2 100	44.2 10.0 45.9 100	27.5 11.3 61.2 100	33.4 11.6 55.0 100	34.0 10.7 55.3 100
Income Less than \$5,000 5,000-9,999 10,000-14,999 15,000 or more Total percent	9.5 35.2 25.2 30.1 100	13.1 35.2 25.6 26.1 100	26.2 24.6 15.2 33.9 100	14.6 34.5 21.6 29.3 100	17.6 31.6 20.9 29.9 100
Age 14-15 16-17 18-19 20-21 Total percent	3.9 20.5 51.7 23.9 190	28.1 48.0 18.1 5.9 100	2.1 7.6 45.8 45.8 100	16.0 41.5 30.5 12.0 100	13.4 30.3 33.7 22.6 100
Enrollment status High school dropout High school student College student Nonenrolled high	49.0 5.7 1.5	0.0 87.5 12.5	43.2 1.1 0.0	0.0 78.1 21.9	18.1 49.5 10.4
school graduate Total percent	43.8 100	0.0 100	55.7 100	0.0 100	22.0 100
Educational attainment 0-8 9-11 12 13 or more Total percent	16.7 37.8 37.9 6.2 100	20.1 67.3 6.7 5.9 100	7.6 35.9 49.6 6.8 100	13.4 64.3 9.2 13.0 100	13.5 53.6 24.3 8.5 100
Region Northeast North central South West Total percent	26.6 41.5 22.3 9.6 100	21.7 30.4 35.3 12.5 100	21.3 28.3 30.0 20.6 100	19.8 27.9 29.2 23.0 100	21.3 29.7 30.7 18.3 100
Number of programs even 1 2 3-5 Total percent	72.2 16.2 11.6 100	85.8 12.8 1.4 100	67.6 20.9 11.5 100	68.4 25.1 6.5 100	73.2 19.6 7.1 100
Total	6.8	27.7	34.1	31.4	100

UNIVERSE: Enrollments by civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979, in government sponsored employment and training programs since January 1, 1: (N=2,640,000)



Patterns of enrollment by income are hard to interpret at this stage. Youth with family income below \$5,000 are strongly overrepresented among year-round, unenrolled participants. Youth from families with income between \$5,000 and \$15,000 tend to be in summer programs and, to a lesser extent, year-round enrolled programs. Youth from the highest income group are fairly evenly spread. The concentration of the lowest income unenrolled group in year-round programs is likely to be a function of the process of transition of youth into independent households. This group should encompass youth who have recently left their parents and are unable to earn much on their own, but who do not have another source of income. Such youth will tend to be out of school and oriented to immediate employability. Following this line of reasoning, youth still dependent on impoverished parents will tend to fall in the \$5,000-\$15,000 income range. They should be more likely to be still in school than the emancipated youth, and less focused on immediate employability. This would lead to their observed relatively low frequency of enrollment in year-round programs.

The age distributions are as expected. The year-round unenrolled participants are concentrated in the 18 to 19 year old group, suggesting that they tend to join the programs shortly after leaving high school. This is in sharp contrast to the summer enrolled participants, who are on average the youngest group. Both of these trends probably reflect the use of the school systems in recruiting summer participants. Looking both at age and enrollment status of participants, we see that the year-round enrolled programs are more likely to have college-enrolled students than are the summer programs. A certain proportion of these are undoubtably being sent to



vocational and remedial education at colleges as part of their training programs. This would also account for the tendency of year-round enrolled programs to have somewhat older participants on average than do the summer enrolled programs. The relative youth of the summer unenrolled participants is consistent with the high proportion of high school dropouts, as compared with the year-round programs for unenrolled youth.

The distributions for age, enrollment status, and educational attainment taken together show that, for the programs involving enrolled youths, the educational attainment figures are quite in line with what would be predicted from the age distribution. That is, most of the participants in those programs are in high school, with about two-thirds reporting that the last grade for which they received credit was the ninth, tenth, or eleventh. The figures for the unenrolled, however, show a bleaker picture. For the summer group, 17 percent have an eighth grade education or less. Almost forty percent have between a ninth and an eleventh grade education. The figures for the year-round unenrolled participants show 8 percent completing eighth grade or less, and 36 percent with ninth to eleventh grade attainment. Thus, substantial numbers of participants are nowhere near a high school degree. One implication here is that special efforts may need to be made to assist summer program participants who are not enrolled in school to obtain the skills, inside or outside the classroom, which will qualify them for steady employment.

Programs in the western states are disproportionately likely to be year-round, particularly for programs involving enrolled participants. North-eastern and North central states, on the other hand, are overrepresented in



the summer programs, particularly for nonstudent participants. This regional difference in composition of programs can be observed when considering other variables, since the summer/enrollment combinations serve systematically different employment and training purposes.

Table 5.4 also shows the number of training programs in which the youths have ever been enrolled. Compared to any other group, the summer enrolled participants report the fewest programs. This reflects, to some extent, the relative ages of the groups: the summer enrolled participants, being youngest, have had the shortest period of eligibility. However, this may also reflect the different motivations of participants. Presumably, most summer, enrolled program participants are primarily concerned with getting a short-term summer job and earning money between enrollment periods, with no commitment to future employment based on the program experience. Participants in year-round programs and youth out of school, however, are likely to be more immediately concerned with employability based on program participation--either specific job skills or general background. One expression of this concern could be multiple enrollments.

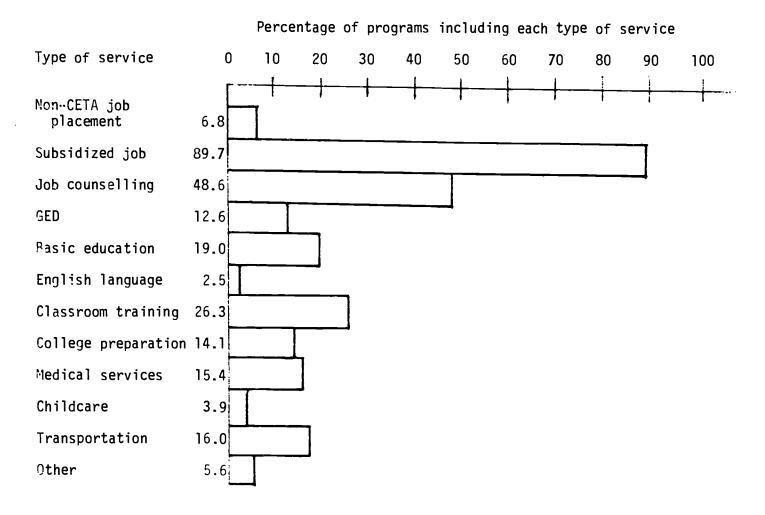
#### PROGRAM SERVICES

Respondents were asked if they had received any of a list of possible services for each program reported. Figure 5.1 shows the percentage of programs which involved each type of service. Percentages add to considerably more than 100, since each respondent could receive any combination of services within a single program.



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>As with the previous section, all of the analysis will be done by program, rather than by respondent.

Figure 5.1 Distribution of Services Received in Government Training Programs



UNIVERSE: Enrollments of civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979, in government sponsored employment and training programs since January 1, 1978. (N=2,640,000)



Almost all of the programs involved some sort of subsidized job placement. This combines all possible types of subsidized positions: work experience, on-the-job training, and public service employment. Seven percent reported being placed by their program in a non-CETA job. After placement, the next most frequent type of service was job counseling, reported as part of almost half of the programs.

Several types of classroom training were distinguished. The most commonly reported was classroom training for skills needed for particular jobs—a quarter of the programs gave this type of training. Almost 20 percent of the programs provided basic education in reading, writing, or arithmetic, and a small proportion also included English as a second language. About one program in eight provided preparation for a GED. A slightly larger number were reported to involve "extra help in preparing for college."

This help is not limited to preparation for a four-year program, but it also covers preparation for training in community colleges and other institutions. Three types of supportive services were explicitly probed: medical services were reported by about one—sixth of the participants, and a slightly larger number reported transportation services. Only about 4 percent reported receiving child care. These supportive service distributions probably reflect in part the age limitations of the sample, since many do not have access to cars, and very few have children at this point.

Respondents were asked if they had received any other services than the ones listed. While these responses have not been completely broken out and coded, they include such things as bus tokens, a form of transportation, and meals provided on a work site.



#### SERVICES RECEIVED BY TYPES OF PARTICIPANTS

Table 5.5 shows the percentages of males and females receiving each of the types of services measured. Regarding supportive services, no substantial differences are observed in the proportions of males and females receiving medical care or transportation assistance. Child care, the least common of all the listed services, was much more likely to be received by females. This fits, of course, with the much greater proportion of women in the sample who report having children, and with the greater responsibility women have for child rearing. Men are slightly more likely than women to have job placements, both in and out of the CETA program.

The largest differences are in the categories of classroom training. Women are more likely than men to receive skills training, college preparation, and basic education. It has been consistently found that girls do better in school, on the whole, than do boys. The greater frequency of females in classroom training programs may be a function of the greater acceptability of these activities to people with more successful experiences with education generally. Alternatively, the difference may reflect the different types of jobs which are held by women and by men. Many traditionally female jobs require specialized training in such skills as typing or medical technology, which are not acquired on the job. On the other hand, many of the skilled trade jobs held by men are learned through formal or informal on-the-job training. Either of these processes, or both, may lead to the greater participation of women in classroom training.

Table 5.6 shows the distribution of services by race. Child care is most likely to go to blacks, while Hispanics are most likely to receive



Table 5.5 Proportion of Participants Receiving Various Services, by Sex

Type of service	Percent of females receiving service	Percent of males receiving service	Total percent receiving service
Transportation	16.9	15.2	16.2
Child care	5.7	2.2	3.9
Medical	15.3	15.5	15.4
Non-CETA job placement	8.1	9.9	9.0
Subsidized job	88.7	90.7	90.6
Skills	31.8	21.2	25.6
College preparatory	17.2	11.1	13.9
GED	12.1	13.1	12.4
English language	2.2	2.5	2.3
Basic education	21.3	16.9	18.1
Job counseling	49.5	47.7	48.2
Total	48.7	51.3	100

UNIVERSE: Enrollments of civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979, in government sponsored employment and training programs since January 1, 1978. (N=2,640,000)



Table 5.6 Proportion of Participants Receiving Various Services, by Race

Type of service	Black	Hispanic	White	Total
Transportation	16.3	15.1	16.0	16.0
Child care	6.8	3.6	2.2	3.9
Medical	17.1	22.0	13.0	15.4
Non-CETA job placement	7.0	11.7	9.8	9.0
Subsidized job	88.7	87.9	90.6	89.7
Skills	28.8	28.0	24.5	25.6
College preparatory	19.2	17.0	10.3	14.1
GED	14.2	15.8	11.0	12.6
English language	2.4	10.1	0.8	2.3
Basic education	21.7	27.3	15.8	18.1
Job counseling	54.3	52.5	44.3	48.6
Total	34.0	10.7	55.3	100

UNIVERSE: Enrollments of civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979, in government sponsored employment and training programs since January 1, 1978. (N=2,640,000)



medical care. Hispanics, and, to a lesser extent, blacks, are overrepresented in GED, English language, and basic education. There are no categories in which whites are substantially overrepresented, implying that they tend to receive fewer total services. Most of these ethnic differences probably reflect differential assessments of the employability problems of the minority groups, both by agency staff and by the clients themselves.

The pattern shown in Table 5.7 for enrollments by educational status for classroom training is quite in line with what would be expected from the presumed needs of the participants. Generally, high school students report the lowest level of classroom training, in all of the categories. Over a third of the high school dropouts report getting GED training. College students are relatively underrepresented in classroom training, except, of course, for college preparatory work. Youths who are out of school, that is, dropouts and nonenrolled high school graduates, are more likely than students to get job counseling and non-CETA job placements. In contrast, virtually 100 percent of the high school enrollees report holding subsidized jobs, compared with 74 percent of the dropouts and 88 percent of nonenrolled high school graduates. This probably reflects the concentration of high school enrollees in summer programs, which are predominately work experience placements. Patterns for supportive services are not so clearly related to educational status, though each of the services listed is most frequently reported by dropouts. This is particularly true for transportation services, mentioned by 28 percent of the dropouts, compared to 16 percent of the total participants.

Overall, these distributions show that CETA services are being targeted in appropriate directions. The key question of whether the programs are



Table 5.7 Proportion of Participants Receiving Various Services, by Enrollment Status

Type of service	High school dropout	High school student		Nonenrolled high school graduate	Total
Transportation	27.8	15.8	9.0	10.5	16.0
Child care	5.9	3.7	3.6	2.9	3.9
Medical	23.9	10.2	15.0	20.4	15.4
Non-CETA job placement	12.3	5.7	7.0	15.0	9.8
Subsidized job	74.3	99.7	82.5	87.7	90.6
Skills	33.6	18.9	31.4	34.7	26.3
College preparatory	16.6	13.6	18.5	11.2	14.1
GED	36.5	7.1	5.4	9.1	12.6
English language	4.6	2.2	0.3	1.7	2.3
Basic education	33.2	12.7	11.8	25.1	19.0
Job counseling	57.5	45.2	35.1	55.4	48.6
Total	17.8	49.7	10.4	22.0	100

UNIVERSE: Enrollments of civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979, in government sponsored employment and training programs since January 1, 1978. (N=2,640,000)



targeted adequately, given the level of need of different groups in the population, cannot be addressed here. The results, as far as they go, are encouraging. Those out of school, presumed available for work, got job placement. Minorities generally receive higher levels of service, particularly in classroom training areas. Classroom training focused on youths who had left school, particularly those without a high school diploma.

Table 5.8 shows the average age, educational attainment, and educational expectations of training participants by type of service received. The average age of the participants is 17.8 years; their average education is 10.5 years. Both of these follow from the population sampled. The average expected education is 13.3 years, indicating that a substantial proportion of youths in government training expect to get education beyond a high school diploma.

There are no dramatic differences in these averages by type of service, but the patterns which do emerge are appropriate to the type of persons who would be expected to benefit most from each type of service. GED participants are somewhat older than most, and expect to get less education. Youths reporting college preparation are the group expecting eventually to receive the highest level of education. While participants receiving training in English as a second language are no younger than the others, they have the lowest level of educational attainment. This undoubtedly reflects both the barrier to education represented by language difficulties and a higher proportion of immigrants in this group, whose educational backgrounds would not prepare them for their local school systems. Recipients of English training are likely to be dropouts (Table 5.7).



Table 5.8 Average Age, Education, and Expected Education of Participants in Programs Providing Various Types of Services

Service provided	Average age	Average education	Expected education
Job counseling	17.9	10.5	13.4
Basic education	18.1	10.5	13.3
English language	17.7	9.8	13.1
GED	18.2	10.1	13.1
College preparatory	17.8	10.6	14.2
Skills	18.3	10.8	13.4
Subsidized job	17.6	10.4	13.5
Non-CETA job placement	18.5	10.5	13.2
Medical .	18.2	10.7	13.4
: Child care	17.8	10.3	13.4
Transportation	17.6	10.0	12.8
Total	17.8	10.5	13.3

UNIVERSE: Enrollment of civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979, in government sponsored employment and training programs since January 1, 1978. (N=2,640,000)



The oldest groups by type of service are those receiving classroom training for skills and those placed in non-CETA jobs. These are the services most directly concerned with immediate employment.

The group of youths who report receiving transportation services is the youngest, suggesting the degree to which access to transportation is a function of age. This same group also has the lowest level of expected education, and, except for the students of English as a second language, the lowest level of educational attainment. The difference is larger than would be expected just from the age pattern, and probably reflects the high proportion of high school dropouts who report receiving this service.

Table 5.9 shows the services received by respondents in four different program categories, as defined by whether or not the respondent was enrolled in school and by whether the program was limited to the summer months. It is clear that summer programs are more limited in the variety of services offered to participants. Over 99 percent of summer participants who are enrolled in school receive a subsidized job, but in no other placement or training service are these youths overrepresented. In contrast, the year-round nonenrolled participants are more likely than other groups to receive any one of the entire list of services, except subsidized work. This does not mean that they don't get subsidized jobs; three-quarters of them do. This rate is only low compared with the nine-tenths of the total who get this service. The year-round enrolled program participants, while not reporting such broad levels of services as their unenrolled counterparts, are more likely than either of the summer groups to report that they received basic education, skills training, college preparation, and non-CETA



Table 5.9 Proportion of Programs Providing Various Services, by Type of Program

	Summer, not enrolled	Summer, enrolled	Year-round not enrolled	Year-round enrolled	Total
Job counseling	52.3	39.4	57.5	46.2	48.6
Basic education	9.9	11.3	31.9	13.8	19.0
English language	1.2	1.9	3.4	1.8	2.3
GED	10.3	5.9	22.9	7.8	12.6
College preparatory	6.1	12.4	15.0	16.3	14.1
Skills	10.9	18.5	38.2	23.7	26.3
Subsidized job	89.1	99.1	75.8	96.6	89.7
Non-CETA job placement	4.9	3.5	15.4	7.9	9.0
Medical	8.9	10.0	24.0	12.3	15.4
Child care	1.1	4.8	4.8	2.8	3.9
Transportation	n 11.9	17.0	19.2	12.6	16.0
Total	6.6	27.7	34.2	31.5	100

UNIVERSE: Enrollment of civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979, in government sponsored employment and training programs since January 1, 1978. (N=2,640,000)



job placement. The summer unenrolled group is relatively underrepresented in almost all categories. The major exceptions are subsidized job placement (although here they are still substantially lower than either of the school enrolled groups) and job counseling. Over half of the programs in the two unenrolled categories are reported to provide job counseling, as opposed to roughly two-fifths of the programs for school enrollees.

Overall, the findings here also seem to indicate that the patterns of service delivery are in line with the needs of the participants. Those who are out of school and not enrolled in summer programs receive the widest range of services. At this point, it is not clear why the summer nonenrolled group should receive so few services. This could be due, at least in part, to the fact that this group is disproportionately white and almost half are high school graduates. Further analysis will teil whether this accounts for the differences.

Table 5.10 shows the number of services received per program by various types of respondents. As we implied by their greater frequency in the tables on types of services, females were likely to receive a larger number of services than males. Twenty-three percent of the females and 19 percent of the males reported receiving more than five services in a given program. Minorities received the largest number of services per program, with 28 percent of Hispanics reporting five or more services, followed by blacks with 24 percent, and whites with 17 percent receiving five or more services.



Alternatively, some of the participants may have enrolled in a year-round program, but stayed in for just the summer months before leaving.

Table 5.10 Number of Services Received, by Selected Characteristics (Percentage distributions)

Characteristic	Percent of sample	0-1	2	3	4	5 or more	Total percent
Sex Female Male	48.5 51.5	16.7 18.5			20.6 14.4	22.7 18.9	100 100
Race Black Hispanic White	34.0 10.7 55.3	16.4 15.0 18.9	21.4	20.7	17.5 15.2 17.8	27.8	100 100 100
Income Less than \$5,000 5,000 to 9,999 10,000 to 14,999 15,000 or more	17.6 31.6 20.9 29.9	14.2 19.5 18.1 17.1	23.8 16.2	19.3	21.6 16.8 23.4 13.8	20.6	100 100 100 100
Age 14-15 16-17 18-19 20-21	13.4 30.3 33.7 22.6	23.6 19.4 17.0 12.8	26.0 17.3	21.9	13.1 12.7 19.6 22.9		100 100 100 100
Enrollment status High school dropout High school student College student Nonenrolled high school graduate	18.1 49.6 10.4	15.8 19.8 30.2 8.6	26.0 16.0	22.8 16.3	20.1 14.5 19.9 20.3	15.1	100 100 100
Type of program Summer, not enrolled Summer, enrolled Year-round, not enrolled Year-round, enrolled	6.8	29.1 26.5 8.4 17.3	12.0 23.4 19.5	26.9 119.8	27.5 12.3 18.8	4.8	100 100 100 100
Educational attainment 0-8 9-11 12 13 or more	13.5 53.6 24.3 8.5	23.0 17.6 11.0 28.4	24.6	20.7 25.6	20.8 7 14.6 5 22.4 7 14.0	22.6	100 100 100 100
Region Northeast North central South West	21.3 29.7 30.7 18.3	18.5 19.1 18.8 13.6	21.8	3 24.0 2 18.2	1 16.7 1 18.5 2 18.5 1 14.3	16.2	100 100 100 100
Number of programs 1 2 3-5	73.7 19.5 6.8	20.0 11.2 14.7	21.	7 25.8	3 15.8 3 21.4 1 22.9	19.8	100 100 100
Total	juilians a	17.7	21.	9 22.	3 17.4	20.7	100

UNIVERSE: Enrollment of civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979, in government sponsored employment and training programs since January 1, 1978.

(N=2,640,000)

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When the sample is divided by enrollment status, it is clear that programs for high school dropouts tend to involve the highest number of services. Almost a third of these programs provide five or more different services. College enrollees are most likely to have programs which provide no more than one type of service. Programs for high school enrollees and graduates tend to involve a moderate number of services, two or three per program. The number of services broken down by type of program shows a complementary pattern. Regardless of the timing of the programs, students receive fewer services than do nonstudents. Additionally, summer programs tend to provide fewer services generally than do the year-round programs. Programs in the Northeast and North central regions tend to provide fewer services per program than do those in the South or West, probably because a greater proportion of participants in these Northern areas are in summer programs.

There is a slight tendency for those programs which offer several services to go to respondents who report a high number of programs. If the number of services delivered is a measure of the training agency's assessment of the complexity of an individual respondent's needs, then there is a moderate association between complexity of needs and frequency of enrollment.

# Occupational Distribution of Classroom Training Programs

Two of the types of services which participants could receive are expected to provide preparation for specific occupational areas. Obviously, a subsidized job can provide on-the-job training. Participants were also



asked if they had received any classroom training for skills "needed in certain types of jobs." All participants reporting such classes were asked the specific job for which they were being trained. Three digit Census codes were determined for each job or training program, then reduced to the twelve major job types in that classification system.

Table 5.11 shows the occupational distribution of training programs. The most frequently reported type of classroom training was clerical, followed by service occupations, crafts, and professional and technical fields. Operative and nonfarm labor account for the bulk of the remaining programs, with very few participants reporting training for managerial, farm, sales, or private household work. By and large, the patterns reflect the relative need for specialized training in the various occupational classifications, and the degree to which the skills are typically acquired on the job as opposed to in the classroom. There are pronounced differences between the distribution of occupations for classroom training and the distribution for subsidized employment. Subsidized jobs tended to be much more concentrated in the lower skill occupational categories, unskilled labor, and service. Correspondingly fewer subsidized jobs were in professional or skilled labor positions. The clerical field commands a substantial proportion both of subsidized employment (25 percent of all jobs) and classroom training (37 percent of all classroom programs). In part, the preponderant distribution into unskilled labor and service occupations for placement is a function of the low level of skills required; participants can be placed in such positions with a minimum of preparation. It is also undoubtedly affected by the relative wage levels of the jobs and the



Table 5.11 Occupational Areas of Training

(Percentage distributions)

Occupation	Classroom Training <sup>a</sup>	Subsidized Employment <sup>b</sup>
Professional, managerial	12.1	4.4
Professional	12.1	4.1
Managerial	0.0	0.1
Clerical, sales	37.4	25.5
Clerical	36.0	24.6
Sales	1.4	0.8
Skilled labor, crafts	20.7	11.4
Crafts	13.1	7.3
Operatives, nontransport	7.3	3.8
Operatives, transport	0.3	0.3
Unskilled labor	6.7	20.0
Laborers, nonfarm	6.3	18.5
Farmers	0.0	0.1
Farm laborers	0.1	0.6
Private household	0.3	0.7
Service	23.1	38.8
Total percent	100	100

<sup>a</sup>UNIVERSE: Enrollments of civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979, in government sponsored employment and training programs since January 1, 1978, which provided classroom training for occupational skills. (N=690,000)

bUNIVERSE: Enrollments of civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979, in government sponsored employment and training programs since January 1, 1978, which provided subsidized employment. (N=2,380,000)



ease with which these functions can be established within on-going agency activities. The local areas involved with each employment and training program can create a larger number of jobs in low skill positions as the high skill ones, and the employment sites avoid major distributions as the individual workers exit from the program.

Since several categories of occupations contained too few cases for analysis, the coding was further collapsed into five major occupational areas: professional, clerical and sales, skilled labor and crafts, unskilled labor, and services. The distributions for these collapsed categories are also shown in Table 5.11.

Table 5.12 shows the occupational distribution of classroom training broken down by demographic groups. As usual, there are major differences by sex. Women constitute 85 percent of the participants in professional and managerial classes, and 80 percent of those in clerical training. Men, on the other hand, are 78 percent of the participants in training for skilled labor and crafts. Unskilled labor is two-thirds male. Service is the most evenly divided of all categories, although women are somewhat everrepresented.

Race differences are considerably less dramatic. Blacks are more likely than others to be in professional or clerical classes. Hispanics are overrepresented in the skilled labor category, while whites are over-represented in classroom training for service and unskilled labor occupations.

Relatively few of the very young (14-15) teens report receiving class-room training. Almost half of those receiving training in professional fields are 16-17 years old. This is consistent with the predominance of high school enrollees in this training category. The 18-19 year olds are concentrated in unskilled labor and service occupations, while the 20-22



Table 5.12 Types of Classroom Occupation Training, by Selected Characteristics

(Percentage distributions)

Characteristic	Profes- sional	Clerical,	Skilled labor, crafts	Unskilled labor	Service	Percent of total sample
Sex Female Male	85.2	80.2	21.9	32.8	48.1	58.2
Total percent	14.8 100	19.8 100	78.1 100	67.2 100	41.9 100	1.8
Race Black Hispanic White Total percent	40.7 9.5 49.7 100	43.9 10.2 45.9 100	36.6 16.0 47.3 100	28.8 9.2 62.1 100	30.3 8.8 60.8 100	37.9 10.9 51.2 100
Age 14-15 16-17 18-19 20-22 Total percent	* 46.5 29.6 18.6 100	* 22.1 26.7 42.8	* 25.5 30.8 37.5 100	* 19.4 47.7 10.1 100	* 23.1 38.2 31.1 100	8.3 25.8 31.9 33.9 100
Enrollment Status High school dropout		10.4	46.2	29.3	22.8	22.3
High school student College student Nonenrolled	43.1 24.4	39.5 16.8	19.2	42.5 12.6	38.3 5.2	35.6 11.7
high school graduate Total percent	19.5 100	33.3 100	32.8 100	15.6 100	33.8 100	30.4 100
Type of program Summer, not enrolled	k	*	*	*		2.3
Summer, enrolled	39.4	18.0	8.9	10.5	49.0	19.1
Year round, not enrolled Year round,	29.9	42.7	75.7	53.7	44.9	50.7
enrolled Total percent	28.0 100	38.1 100	12.1 100	32.2 100	6.1 100	28.0 100



Table 5.12, continued

Characteristic	Profes- sional	Clerical, sales	Skilled labor, crafts	Unskilled labor	Service	Percent of total sample
Region Northeast North central South West Total percent	3.6 28.4 41.7 26.3 100	17.6 28.2 38.5 15.7 100	12.4 28.7 38.6 20.3 100	16.6 21.1 38.4 38.4 100	24.3 31.1 31.0 13.5 100	16.0 28.4 37.4 18.1 100
Total	12.1	37.4	20.7	6.7	23.1	100

<sup>\*</sup>Insufficient number of sample cases.

UNIVERSE: Enrollments of civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979, in government sponsored training programs since January 1, 1978, which provided classroom training for occupational skills. (N=690,000)



year olds are overrepresented in the clerical and skilled labor categories.

As might be expected, those enrolled in school are more likely to receive training as professionals than are nonstudents. Dropouts tend to train for skilled or unskilled labor jobs. They are very much underrepresented in clerical training. Nonenrolled high school graduates tend to be in clerical, skilled labor, or service training, echoing the distribution for the higher levels of age.

Half of all those receiving classroom training are year-round, not enrolled program participants. These youth are a substantial proportion of the trainees in all fields. but are especially predominant in skilled labor (76 percent) and service (54 percent). Most of the summer, enrolled program participants who receive classroom training are being trained in service or professional fields. Year-round, enrolled program participants, on the other hand, tended to be trained for clerical or unskilled labor occupations.

Table 5.13 shows the demographic distributions of subsidized job placements. As expected, clerical jobs are filled predominately by women, while skilled and unskilled labor jobs go mostly to men, although the discrepancy is less extreme than for clerical jobs. Both males and females frequently report placement in service positions, although the proportion of men in these positions is much higher than the proportion of women.

Unlike the sex distributions, which echo patterns found in the general labor force, distributions by race show a tendency for higher level positions to go to minorities. Minority enrollees are more likely than whites to be in skilled labor positions. Hispanics are more likely than either



Table 5.13 Types of Subsidized Employment, by Selected Characteristics (Percentage distributions)

Characteristics	Professional, managerial	Clerical, Sales	Skilled labor, crafts	Unskilled labor	Service	Total
Sex Female Hale Total percent	43.4 56.6 100	88.7 11.3 100	26.9 73.1 100	20.4 79.6 100	43.7 56.3 100	48.6 51.4 100
Race Black Hispanic White Total percent	33.2 13.0 53.8 100	33.4 12.0 54.6 100	36.7 12.1 51.2 100	26.0 8.3 65.7 100	37.0 10.1 53.0 100	33.7 10.5 55.8 100
Age 14-15 16-17 18-19 20-22 Total percent	5.8 25.9 31.1 37.2 100	5.0 26.4 34.5 34.0 100	7.0 27.5 38.9 26.6 100	19.0 34.2 29.4 17.1 100	19.5 33.9 33.0 13.6 100	13.7 31.0 33.3 22.0 100
Enrollment status High school dropout High school student	4.5 37.3	11.7 38.8	35.7 29.7	23.2 58.9	13.0 62.4	16.9 50.9
College student Nonenrolled high school graduate Total percent	47.4 10.8 100	33.4 100	4.8 29.8 100	5.9 12.0 100	7.5 17.2 100	21.4 100
Type of program Summer, not enrolled Summer, enrolled Year round, not enrolled	2.7 32.1 13.4	4.6 16.7 41.2	8.6 15.9 58.5	8.0 45.8 27.7	6.0 30.4 25.0	6.2 28.4 33.0
Year round, enrolled Total percent	51.8 100	37.5 100	16.9 100	18.6 100	38.5 100	32.4 100
Region Northeast North central South West Total percent	20.7 39.6 22.4 17.4 100	25.5 25.0 30.9 18.6 100	20.9 21.1 38.7 19.4 100	15.9 36.3 25.5 22.3 100	21.4 31.5 32.5 14.6 100	21.3 29.9 30.9 17.9 100
Total	4.4	25.5	11.4	20.0	38.8	100

UNIVERSE: All government programs since January 1, 1978 which provided subsidized employment. (N=2,380,000)



of the other two ethnic groups to be in professional or clerical positions. It is interesting that, within these training programs, it is whites rather than minorities who are substantially overrepresented in unskilled labor.

There is a fairly strong tendency for younger participants to be placed in unskilled occupations. Conversely, older participants are more likely to be placed in clerical or skilled labor jobs. This is consistent with the distributions for enrollment status. High school enrollees are concentrated in the unskilled and service categories, while college enrollees and high school graduates report being in clerical positions. College enrollees make up almost half of the professional placements. Skilled labor positions are likely to be reported by the out-of-school groups, dropouts and nonenrolled graduates.

Looking at another related variable, type of program, shows that participants in summer programs are especially likely to be in unskilled labor positions. Compared with summer programs, the year round, enrolled have a large proportion of clerical and skilled labor placements. Year-round, unenrolled programs participants also tend to have clerical positions, and are overrepresented in the professional and service categories.

Looking at the distribution by region, the table shows that participants from the Northeast are the most likely to be in clerical positions. The South and West are overrepresented in skilled labor and crafts, while unskilled and service positions are disproportionately frequent in the North central states.

### Length of Time in Training

The length of time spent in each program was calculated using start and stop dates reported by participants. No attempt was made to distinguish



between programs which were completed successfully and those from which the participant dropped out or was expelled. The distribution of the number of weeks spent in each program was highly skewed, with most programs lasting ten weeks or less.

Table 5.14 shows the average number of weeks spent in programs, broken down by the key demographic variables. It is clear, of course, that summer programs, by definition, are shorter than the year-round programs. Within year-round programs, those for students are substantially longer than those for the nonenrolled, an average of 30 weeks as compared to an average of 22 weeks. Looking at enrollment status, the longest programs were reported by high school graduates, followed by dropouts, with high school students reporting the shortest average programs. This is probated a function of the large number of high school students who are in summer programs. There is a definite age trend, with older participants reporting longer programs, again probably a function of the summer-nonsummer distributions.

There are only minor sex and race differences, with women's programs somewhat longer than men's, and with blacks reporting substantially shorter programs than either Hispanics or whites.

## REASONS FOR ENTERING EMPLOYMENT AND TRAINING PROGRAMS

For each program, youths were asked their main reasons for enrolling in the programs. Results are shown in Table 5.15. By far the most common response, especially for males, high school students, and younger participants, was to make money. The only other reasons which were mentioned by more than 10 percent of the respondents were to get a job and to get job training. Less than 5 percent of the programs were joined in order to get a better job, because the program was interesting, or just for something to do.



Table 5.14 Mean Weeks Spent in Programs, by Selected Characteristics

Characteristic	Mean weeks
Sex Female Male	18.4 16.4
Race Black Hispanic White	14.2 21.2 19.2
Age 14-15 16-17 18-19 20-22	10.4 11.4 22.2 24.4
Region Northeast North central South West	13.5 18.0 19.4 19.4
Enrollment status High school dropout High school student College student Nonenrolled high school graduate	20.6 11.8 18.1 28.5
Type of program Summer, not enrolled Summer, enrolled Year-round, not enrolled Year-round, enrolled	7.0 6.9 22.0 30.1

UNIVERSE: Enrollments of civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979, in government sponsored employment and training programs since January 1, 1978, except those in which participant is currently enrolled. (N=1,990,000)



Table 5.15 Reasons for Entering Government Employment and Training Programs. by Selected Characteristics

(Percentage distributions)

	Make money	Get a better job	Get a job		Do something	Program was interesting		Total
Sex Female Male	38.2 41.6	3.9 2.9	24.0 23.5	16.7 15.9	5.5 3.4	3.6 3.1	8.1 9.1	100 100
Race Black Hispanic White	40.7 34.6 40.5	2.9 2.4 3.9	22.5 22.8 24.7	21.0	6.4 5.0 3.1	3.0 4.3 3.3	6.5 9.9 9.6	100 100 100
Income Less than \$5,000 5,000-9,999 10,000-14,999 15,000 or more	40.0 45.8 48.2 28.0		22.8 22.7 25.1 21.4		2.8 5.2 5.5 4.0	2.9 3.5 1.9 4.3	9.4 6.0 5.4 15.3	100 100 100 100
Age 14-15 16-17 18-19 20-21	59.2 51.2 36.7 18.1	1.6	18.5 3.8 24.9 31.9	3.9 10.5 18.5 28.2	7.1 6.0 3.6 2.0	3.6 3.5 3.1 3.3	6.5 8.1 8.5 10.7	100 100 - 100 100
Enrollment status High school dropout High school student College student Nonenrolled high school graduate	24.2 54.2 42.5	1.1 2.9 3.2	25.6 19.2 12.8 37.6	20.6 9.1 20.3 26.8	1.5 6.8 4.1 1.5	2.0 3.5 2.4 4.6	15.3 5.9 15.1 6.1	100 100 100
Educational attainment 0-8 9-11 12 13 or more	51.1 44.9 24.2 35.4	0.4 <b>4</b> .3 <b>4.1</b> 0.0	18.6 21.7 33.6 18.5	7.2 13.3 26.9 13.5	8.2 4.5 1.7 4.1	4.4 2.8 3.2 6.0	9.5 8.2 6.1 17.4	100 100 100 100



Table 5.15 (continued)

Characteristic	Make money	Get a better job	Get a job	- • -	Do something	Program was interesting		Total
Region Northwest North central South West	36.7 42.4 40.1 37.2	2.0 2.5 5.0 3.9	27.2 27.6 22.5 18.2	14.4 12.7 16.9 21.2	5.8 3.1 5.1 4.4	3.5 3.6 2.7 4.1	10.2 8.1 7.1 11.1	100 100 100 100
Programs 1 2 3-5	39.6 41.7 39.5	3.2 4.8 1.7	23.3 25.3 25.0	14.2 20.7 20.8	5.1 2.9 1.7	4.1 1.6 0.0	10.2 2.8 11.3	100 100 100
Type of program Summer, not enrolled Summer, enrolled Year-round, not enrolled Year-round, enrolled	53.3	3.9 1.6 6.6 1.3	27.7 18.5 32.9 17.6	14.0 6.6 25.7 14.9	3.2 11.0 1.2 2.5	5.1 3.2 3.0 3.4	5.5 5.9 11.1 9.0	100 100 100 100
Total								

UNIVERSE: Enrollments of civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979, in government sponsored employment and training programs since January 1, 1978. (N=2,640,000)



There are several differences based on region of residence. Participants from the North central region are more likely than others to say that they joined the program in order to get a job or to make money. Participants from the West are overrepresented among those saying the training was their reason for entering the program.

There are no major sex differences in reasons for enrolling. Compared with whites, Hispanics and blacks are more likely to mention job training as their goal, while whites are more likely to mention simply getting a job. Age and enrollment show the clearest differences. Younger participants, particularly high school enrollees, are overrepresented among those who enroll in a government training program in order to make money. Older respondents are more focussed on getting a job, getting a better job, and getting job training. Youths who are out of school, either graduated from high school or dropped out, are more likely than others, proportionately, to emphasize getting a job and getting job training. Looking at type of program, the participants in year-round programs not enrolled in school are most likely to say that they entered to get training or to get a better job. The nonenrolled summer participants tend to emphasize getting a job, but not to say that they wanted training. In contrast to the out-of-school participants, students disproportionately said that they entered programs in order to make money. If it is assumed that participants with family income between \$5,000 and \$15,000 tend to be living with their parents and to be enrolled in school, the pattern of the relationship of income to reasons for enrolling is understandable. That is, these youths enroll for money or something to do, the immediate rewards of having any job,



while those in both the upper and lower income groups tend to enroll for training or getting a better job. It seems fairly certain that these age and enrollment patterns reflect the transition of young people to more direct concern with the labor market and eventual career advancement as they leave their student status and approach adulthood. Older youths seem more ready to use their government employment and training as a step towards career entry.

# REASONS FOR LEAVING GOVERNMENT EMPLOYMENT AND TRAINING PROGRAMS

Participants were asked their reasons for leaving government programs. Responses were coded into categories based largely on previous work on job turnover. These can be divided into involuntary and voluntary reasons for leaving. As shown in Table 5.16, involuntary reasons, layoffs, discharges, and program endings account for some two-thirds of the participants. Almost half of the participants reported that they left because of the end of the program. Another 18 percent said that they left because they were laid off. It is not known how many of these layoffs were actually due to scheduled program termination and how many were due to other administrative reasons. Less than 3 percent of the participants reported leaving a program because they had been fired or expelled. Voluntary reasons for leaving were considerably more varied; no one reason accounted for more than 5 percent of the programs. The most common single reason for leaving voluntarily was that the participant had found another job. Low pay and general family reasons were both mentioned in less than 2 percent of the responses. A hodgepodge of other "voluntary" reasons accounted for just under 20 percent.



Table 5.16 Distribution of Reason for Leaving Employment and Training Programs

(Percentage distribution)

Reason	Percentage
Laid off, fired Layoff Discharge	20.7 18.2 2.5
Program ended	<u>45.5</u>
Family, pregnancy Family Pregnancy	3.0 1.8 1.2
Working conditions Better job Pay was low	6.9 5.2 1.7
Illness, other voluntary Illiness Other voluntary (quit, school interfered,	17.8 0.8
armed forces, moved)	17.0
Other	6.2
Total percent	100

UNIVERSE: Enrollments of civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979, in government sponsored employment and training programs since January 1, 1978, except those in which participant is currently enrolled. (N=1,990,000)



In order to get some sort of idea of the way in which the reasons for leaving programs might vary according to program type and characteristics of participants, it was necessary to group the responses. This grouping is shown in Table 5.16. Six categories are distinguished: laidoff or fired, 21 percent; program ended, 47 percent; family and pregnancy, 3 percent; working conditions, 6 percent; other voluntary, 19 percent; and other, 5 percent. Some categories, notably family and working conditions, are still very infrequent. Interpretation will be quite tentative for these categories.

Table 5.17 shows the distribution of reasons for leaving program for the key demographic distinctions. There are few striking findings. The only real sex difference is that most of those leaving for family reasons are female, which is to be expected. Males are somewhat more likely than females to say they were laid off.

By race, blacks were much more likely than either whites or Hispanics to say that they left because their program ended. Compared with blacks, whites and Hispanics are more likely to say that they left to get a job or that pay was too low. This probably reflects the greater restrictions in employment for blacks in this society.

Younger participants tended to report more frequently that they left because of layoffs or the ending of their programs. This fits with the distributions for enrollment status and type of program. Students are most likely to report leaving for involuntary reasons. The out of school participants, dropouts and high school graduates, leave to get other jobs or because the pay is too low. These are youth who are expected to be most concerned with entry into the paid labor force. Out of school youth are the only ones



Table 5.17 Reasons for Leaving Employment and training program, by Selected Characteristics

(Percentage distributions)

Characteristic	Layoff, fired	Program ended	Family, pregnancy	Got a better job, pay too low	Other, voluntary	Other	Total
Sex Female Male	18.7 2 <b>2.</b> 5	45.7 45.4	5.3 0.9	6.2 6.6	17.4 18.8	6.7 4.2	100 100
Race Black Hispanic White	23.5 20.9 18.8	51.1 45.1 42.0	2.0 5.0 3.2	3.2 8.4 8.9	13.8 13.8 21.0	6.3 6.7 6.1	100 100 100
Income Less than \$5000 \$5,000-9,999 \$10,000-14,999 \$15,000 or more	17.3 23.0 14.6 23.7	40.8 46.7 59.1 42.7	5.6 2.6 3.9	7.3 5.7 4.6 4.1	18.4 16.7 15.9 22.5	10.7 5.3 2.3	10 <b>C</b> 100 100
Age 14-15 16-17 18-19 20-22	25.0 23.8 16.9 19.1	56.1 48.5 44.4 35.6	1.6 1.7 3.1 5.5	0.2 4.5 8.0 13.1	14.5 17.2 20.4 16.5	2.5 4.3 7.1 10.2	100 100 100 100
Enrollment Status High school dropout High school student College student Nonenrolled, high school graduate	14.5 24.8 18.3 17.7	31.4 51.5 52.8 40.1	5.2 1.3 0.0 6.6	13.0 2.8 8.5	23.0 16.0 17.1 17.3	12.9 3.6 3.4 8.2	100 100 100
Type of program Summer, not enrolled Summer, enrolled Year long, not enrolled Year long, enrolled	18.8 25.2 15.5 21.4	49.4 55.7 32.6 45.8	1.6 0.5 7.0 1.8	8.6 1.8 12.1 7.1	12.7 13.9 22.1 19.5	8.8 2.8 10.8 4.5	100 100 100 100
Total	20.7	45.5 i	3.0	6.9	17.7	6.2	100

UNIVERSE: Enrollments of civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979, in government sponsored employment and training programs since January 1, 1978, except those in which participant is currently enrolled. (N=1,990,000)



to report leaving for family reasons with any frequency. As would be expected, most summer participants leave at the end of their programs. Yearround, not enrolled participants report more departures from programs because of working conditions or other voluntary reasons, and were the least likely of any group to leave for involuntary reasons. This undoubtedly reflects a lower proportion of participants who are in time-limited, project-type activities, as well as greater commitment to the labor market. As shown earlier, this group is most likely to receive classroom training apart from subsidized employment. Also, this group has the largest proportion of participants who said they left for family reasons.

### PERCEIVED PROGRAM EFFECTIVENESS

For each program described, participants were asked whether or not they felt that the program had improved their chances of getting a good job. If the participants had worked since leaving the program, they were also asked whether they felt the program had helped them perform on the job. Using these as measures of perceived usefulness of employment and training, the programs seem to be doing fairly well. Almost three-quarters of the participants report that the program improved their chances of imployment. For those who worked following participation, a little over half (53 percent) felt that their program was helpful in their performances.

Table 5.18 shows the relationship of perceived effectiveness to type of program, enrollment status and area of residence. Summer participants were



This question was answered for about 1,120,000 program enrollments, 42 percent of the total.

Table 5.18 Perceived Usefulness of Government Employment and Training, by Type of Program, Enrollment Status, and Region

Characteristic	Percent believe program improved chances of getting a good job <sup>a</sup>	Percent of universe in category	Percent believe program helped performance on job <sup>b</sup>	Percent of universe in category
Type of program Summer, not enrolled Summer, enrolled Year-round, not enrooled Year-round, enrolled Total	56.1 70.6 73.4 78.1	6.6 27.6 34.3 31.6 100	38.9 47.7 56.1 61.0	10.4 23.0 42.8 23.8 100
Enrollment High school dropout High school enrollee College enrollee High school graduate Total	72.2 73.9 76.6 69.7	17.8 49.8 10.3 22.1 100	46.4 54.9 51.7 58.7	24.3 34.7 12.5 28.6 100
Region Northeast North central South West Total	66.2 71.2 80.3 71.6	21.5 29.8 30.6 18.1 100	45.7 49.7 61.0 58.0	19.2 33.3 27.3 20.2 100
Income Less than \$5,000 5,000-9,999 10,000-14,999 15,000 or more Total	68.7 79.0 75.9 68.8 100	17.7 31.3 21.0 30.0 100	52.9 56.3 74.8 45.8 100	18.9 30.6 15.8 34.7 100
Total	73.0	100	53.5	100

<sup>a</sup>UNIVERSE: Enrollments of civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979, in government

sponsored employment and training programs since January 1, 1978.

(N=2,640,000)

buniverse: Enrollments of civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979, in government

sponsored employment and training programs since January 1, 1978, whose participants were employed after leaving. (N=1,120,000)



less likely to see the program as effective than were participants in yearround programs. For Loth summer and nonsummer programs, student participants were more likely than their nonstudent counterparts to rate them as effective, both on the job and in the job market. It can be seen also that there is a difference between seeing a program as improving the chances of employment and seeing a program as actually helping on the job performance. High school graduates are least likely to feel that their chances of getting a good job were improved by program participation. For those who held jobs after training, however, high school graduates are most likely (59 percent) to say that their training was useful in performing their jobs. High school dropouts were least likely to feel that the program was useful (46 percent). Enrolled youths were intermediate. To some extent, the lower percentage of youths seeing their program as useful on the job, as opposed to useful in getting a job, may be from the frequent focus on delivery of general skills and of job-seeking information, which are not directly used on actual jobs. On the other hand, it may reflect idealistic optimism by participants that, having spent their time and energy in the programs, justice and fairness require that there be some kind of improvement in their employability. Rating usefulness on the job is less hypothetical, reflecting the actual experience at work.

Looking at programs by region, both effectiveness measures are highest for programs in the South. Eighty percent of Southern programs are rated as improving chances for employment, and 61 percent are seen as helping on the job performance. Northeastern programs are least likely to be so rated.



The pattern of results by income shows youth in the highest and lowest income brackets responding similarly to each other in contrast to those in the two intermediate categories. Youths with family incomes between \$5,000 and \$15,000 saw their programs as effective on both measures more frequently than did the very low income and upper income youths.

Tables 5.19 and 5.20 show the interaction of sex and race with the perceived effectiveness items. Females are generally more favorably inclined to the programs than are males. Of the three ethnic categories, blacks are consistently most favorably disposed. Taking both sex and race into account simultaneously shows a more complex pattern. For perceived improved chances of getting a job, there is no sex difference for blacks, only a minor tendency for white females to see their programs as effective more often than white males (74 percent compared with 70 percent), with a fairly wide gap in perceived effectiveness between female and male Hispanics (77 percent compared with 68 percent).

Female participants are more likely to report that their program has helped them perform on the job than are males. Almost 59 percent of females report that their employment and training were useful, as compared with only 50 percent of the males. Among the young men, there is virtually no difference by ethnic group. White women were substantially less likely than their Hispanic and black counterparts to see their training as directly useful. Fifty-four percent of white women report their program as useful, compared to about 65 percent of the two minority groups. Even so, white women say that their programs were effective more often than any of the groups of young men. A possible explanation for their more positive response is the



Table 5.19 Percentage Reporting Program Improved Chances of Getting a Good Job, by Sex and Race

Sex	Black	Hispanic	White	Total
Female	74.5	76.7	74.3	74.4
(Percent of universe)	(16.8)	( 5.0)	(26.8)	(48.0)
Male	75.4	68.4	69.7	71.4
(Percent of universe)	(17.0)	( 5.8)	(28.5)	(52.0)
Total	74.9	72.3	71.9	72.9
(Percent of universe)	(33.9)	(10.8)	(55.3)	(100)

Table 5.20 Percentage Reporting Program Helped Performance on a Job, by Sex and Race

Sex	Black	Hispanic	White	Total
Female	64.0	66.9	54.0	58.9
(Percent of universe)	(14.2)	( 4.0)	(26.0)	(44.1)
Male	51.0	49.4	49.3	50.0
(Percent of universe)	(14.3)	( 5.5)	(36.0)	(55.9)
Total	57.5	56.7	51.2	5 <b>3.5</b>
(Percent of universe)	(28.5)	( 9.6)	(61.9)	(100)

UNIVERSE: Enrollments of civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979, in government sponsored employment and training programs since January 1, 1978, whose participants were employed after leaving. (N=1,120,000)



greater number of services received by women as a group (see Table 9), especially their greater frequency of classroom training for skills. It may be that more attention should be paid to getting young men to participate in programs specifically targeted towards job-related skills.

### ASPECTS OF PROGRAM MOST LIKED AND DISLIKED

For each program, respondents were asked to name the one thing they most liked, and the one thing they most disliked. These were coded into the categories shown in Table 5.21. If the categories of "job or training itself" and "the chance to learn" are combined, two-fifths of the respondents can be seen to value the opportunity to learn as the most favorable aspect of the program. One-fifth of the respondents said that their favorite thing about the program was the pay.

Almost half of the participants said that there was nothing which they disliked about the program. This does not mean that the programs were perceived as perfect; rather, it can be taken as an indication that there was no one aspect which was an active problem for these youths. Training, pay, and staff and supervisors were the aspects most often mentioned as problems. The job or training itself was disliked most by 13 percent of the sample, while pay was the biggest problem for 8 percent. The overall pattern shows that youths seem most concerned about the training they can get out of the programs, with pay also important, but to a smaller proportion of participants. Social opportunities, that is co-workers and other students, are mentioned positively by 7 percent of the participants, and negatively by 4 percent.

Tables 5.22 through 5.25 break down the most liked items by enrollment, sex, race, type of program, and income. There were few differences by



Table 5.21 Aspects of Program Most Liked and Disliked
(Percentage distributions)

Aspect of program	Percent liking aspect most	Percent disliking aspect most
Job or training itself	28.0	13.4
Staff or supervisors	4.9	6.4
Co-workers	6.6	3.8
Pay	21.2	8.0
Something to do	3.3	a
Chance to learn	12.6	a
Everything	2.0	1.1
Nothing	4.9	45.0
Other	16.5	22.4
Total percent	100	100

 $<sup>{}^{\</sup>mathrm{a}}\mathsf{These}$  positive aspects had no negative counterpart.



Table 5.22 Aspects of Employment and Training Programs Liked Most, by Enrollment Status

(Percentage distributions)

Aspect liked most	High school dropout	High school student		Nonenrolled high school graudate	Total
Total	17.7	49.9	10.4	22.0	100
Job or training itself	34.5	25.0	34.8	25.4	27.8
Staff, supervisors	4.3	3.9	5.6	7.3	4.9
Co-workers	6.5	7.2	3.4	6.3	6.5
Pay	13.3	25.8	17.0	19.6	21.3
Something to do	2.8	4.0	2.7	2.0	3.2
Chance to learn	11.5	10.4	13.9	18.3	12.7
Everything	0.5	2.5	3.4	1.4	2.0
Nothing	8.6	5.0	0.8	3.5	4.9
Other	18.0	16.1	18.4	16.2	16.7
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100



Table 5.23 Aspects of Programs Liked Most, by Sex and Race (Percentage distributions)

Aspect liked most	Se		_	Race	_	Total
Aspect Tree most	Female	Male	Black	Hispanic	White	iotai
Total	48.7	51.3	34.0	10.7	55.3	100
Job or training itself	29.8	25.9	30.3	29.2	<b>26.</b> 0	27.8
Staff, supervisors	5.2	4.6	2.6	6.1	<b>6.</b> 0	4.9
Co-workers	5.6	7.3	6.4	7.7	6.3	6.5
Pay	17.7	24.7	21.3	14.9	22.6	21.3
Something to do	3.3	3.1	2.3	2.3	4.0	3.2
Chance to learn	14.2	11.3	11.2	9.8	14.2	12.7
Everything	2.8	1.3	2.9	3.7	1.2	2.0
Nothing	4.1	5.6	6.3	5.6	3.9	4.9
Other	17.2	16.2	16.6	20.7	15.9	16.7
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100



Table 5.24 Aspect of Program Liked Most, by Type of Program (Percentage distributions)

Aspect liked most			Year-round, not enrolled		Total
Total	6.5	27.9	34.0	31.5	100
Job or training itself	29.8	29.5	28.8	24.8	27.8
Staff, supervisors	2.6	2.4	6.4	5.9	4.9
Co-workers	9.1	6.9	6.1	6.0	6.5
Pay	22.3	23.7	16.5	24.2	21.3
Something to do	5.7	4.6	1.7	3.1	3.2
Chance to learn	6.4	8.8	17.3	12.5	12.7
Everything	0.5	2.8	1.1	2.7	2.0
Nothing	7.3	4.1	5.3	4.5	4.9
Other	16.4	17.2	16.7	16.2	16.7
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100



Table 5.25 Aspect of Program Liked Most, by Income

Aspect liked most	Less than \$5,000	\$5,000- \$9,999	\$10,000- \$14,999	\$15,000 or more	Total
Total	17.6	31.5	21.1	29.8	100
Job or training itself	30.7	29.7	28.0	<b>26.</b> 5	28.6
Staff or supervisors	4.5	4.1	8.4	4.8	5.3
Co-workers	5.3	7.0	4.5	6.9	6.1
Pay	18.3	22.0	26.5	19.8	21.7
Something to do	2.0	5.1	2.1	1.5	2.8
Chance to learn	14.5	7.5	<b>15.</b> 5	13.2	12.1
Everything	2.4	3.3	1.2	1.4	2.1
Nothing	6.6	5.6	2.0	5.2	4.9
Other	15.6	15.6	11.8	20.7	16.3
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100



enrollment status. High school students are more oriented to the pay than were the rest of the participants, and correspondingly less likely to mention the opportunity for learning or the job or training itself. Nonenrolled high school graduates are most likely to mention learning as their favorite. Looking at the distributions by sex, females were more likely than males to mention the job or training or the chance to learn as the most positive aspects of the program. Males were more likely than females to mention pay, and, surprisingly, more likely to mention co-workers.

Minority participants mentioned the training itself more often than whites. Blacks were least likely to mention supervisors or staff as the most positive aspects. Hispanics were least likely to mention pay as the best thing about the problem.

Table 5.24 shows that there were several differences in the reports of preferred aspects of programs when looked at by program type. Year-round enrollees were more likely to mention the staff as positive aspects, while summer program participants were most likely to mention co-workers. Perhaps most significant is the relatively high proportion of those in year-round, out-of-school programs who felt that the chance to learn was the most liked aspect of the program. This same group was least likely to mention pay.

As shown in Table 5.25, there were few differences based on family income. Those in the \$10,000 to \$14,999 range were the most likely to mention pay and staff as their favorite aspects of the programs. Youth in the \$5,000 to \$9,999 range were only about half as likely as the other groups to mention the chance to learn.

Tables 5.26-5.29 show the aspects of the programs most disliked. It can be seem from Table 5.26 that one of the major differences by enrollment



Table 5.26 Aspects of Program Most Disliked, by Enrollment Status (Percentage distributions)

Aspect disliked most	High school dropout	High school student	College student	Nonenrolled high school graduate	Total
Job or training itself	11.7	14.4	18.3	9.9	13.4
Staff, supervisors	7.6	4.8	7.2	8.6	6.4
Co-workers	3.3	4.1	0.6	<b>5.</b> 0	3.8
Pay	8.9	5.0	14.5	10.8	8.0
Everything	*	*	*	*	1.0
Nothing	41.8	49.7	32.4	42.6	4 <b>4.</b> 9
Other	25.3	20.7	25.9	22.4	22.4
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100

<sup>\*</sup>Insufficient number of smaple cases.



Table 5.27 Aspect of Program Most Disliked, by Type of Program (Percentage distributions)

Aspect disliked most	Summer, not enrolled	Summer, enrolled	Year-round, not enrolled	Year-round, enrolled	Total
Total	6.5	27.8	34.3	32.3	100
Job or training itself	14.3	14.7	9.9	15.7	13.4
Staff, supervisors	8.4	3.7	8.1	6.5	6.4
Co-workers	0.0	4.2	4.9	2.9	3.8
Pay	3.4	4.0	11.2	9.0	8.0
Everything	*	*	*	*	1.1
Nothing	47.8	50.4	41.2	43.6	45.0
Other	26.1	22.4	23.5	20.5	22.4
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100

<sup>\*</sup>Insufficient number of sample cases.



Table 5.28 Aspects of Program Most Disliked, by Sex and Race (Percentage distributions)

		ex		Total		
Aspect disliked most	Female	Male	Black	Hispanic	White	iotai
Total	48.6	51.4	33.9	10.8	55.3	100
Job or training itself	11.4	15.2	14.0	9.7	13.6	13.4
Staff, supervisors	8.0	4.9	6.8	4.0	6.6	6.4
Co-workers	3.9	3.7	2.8	6.6	3.8	3.8
Pay	6.0	9.9	6.4	11.1	8.4	8.0
Everything	*	*	*	*	*	1.1
Nothing	45.4	44.5	47.4	43.4	44.3	45.0
Other	24.2	20.7	22.2	24.3	22.1	22.4
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100

<sup>\*</sup>Insufficient number of sample cases.



Table 5.23 Aspect of Program Most Disliked, by Income

Aspect disliked most	Less than \$5,000	\$5,000- \$9,999	\$10,000- \$14,999	\$15,000 or more	Total
Total	17.7	31.4	21.0	29.9	100
Job or training itself	13.2	15.3	10.5	15.8	14.1
Staff, supervisors	8.7	6.6	3.2	7.6	6.5
Co-workers	4.8	4.3	3.1	3.9	4.0
Pay	12.8	8.1	4.8	8.4	8.3
Everything	0.6	0.9	0.7	1.8	1.1
Nothing	38.3	43.5	56.5	39.4	44.3
Other	20.7	21.3	21.3	23.0	21.7
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100



status is in the proportion of the sample who indicate that there was nothing which they disliked about the program. Half of the high school enrollees said that nothing was wrong in their programs, as compared with 32 percent of the college enrollees. High school dropouts and graduates are intermediate. This may be due to college enrollees being in less satisfictory programs, or, alternatively, to a greater tendency of the more educated respondents to look at their situations critically, with higher standards for satisfaction. College enrollees are overrepresented in all other categories except co-workers and staff or supervisors. High school enrollees, on the other hand, are most likely to say that there was nothing they disliked about their programs. Very few in this group said that they disliked the pay. High school and college st dents said that they disliked the job or training itself relatively more frequently than did either of the non-enrolled groups.

Some of these differences associated with enrollment status also show up in Table 5.27, which shows appects of programs most disliked by participants in different types of programs. Summer participants are somewhat more prone than year-round participants to say that there was nothing about the programs that they disliked. They are particularly unlikely to complain about the pay. Year-round, nonsturent participants are the group least likely to say that they disliked the job or the training itself.

Table 5.28 shows the sex and race distributions for dislikes. Again, as with aspects of programs most liked, there are few sex differences. Makes are somewhat more likely to say that they disliked the job or training or the pay and less likely to mention staff or supervisors than are females.



Looking at the distributions by ethnic group, blacks and whites are similar. Relative to the other groups, Hispanics mention co-workers and pay as least-liked aspects of their programs, and less frequently mention the job or training and the staff or supervisors.

Table 5.29 shows aspects of the program most disliked, by income category. Those in the intermediate range, \$5,000 to \$15,000, are most likely to say that they disliked nothing. This is particularly true for those with a family income between \$10,000 and \$15,000 dollars. Over half of this group said there was nothing they disliked. As a consequence, this group is underrepresented in all other categories.

Overall, then, participants tend to say that there was nothing they disliked about the programs. The major concerns, both for likes and dislikes, were the opportunity for training and the pay from their pagrams. The major differences in distributions were functions of enrollment status and program type, probably reflecting differences in the needs of participants as they enter the labor force.

# PARTICIPANT REACTIONS TO PROGRAMS

Youths were asked their assessments of the programs in which they had participated since January 1, 1978, on three different dimensions. Table 5.30 shows the overall distributions of each item. The first two dealt with assessments of the difficulty of the work and the ease or toughness of the discipline of the program. The third item called for an overall assessment of how satisfied the respondent was with the program.

Before describing the results, a few words about interpretation are in order. It has been consistently found that people tend to report themselves as satisfied with their lives unless there is some active source of



Table 5.30 Weighted Distributions of Attitudes Toward Employment and Training Programs

1. How difficult or easy was the work you had to perform in this program?

Score	Category	Percent
1.	Very difficult	3.0
2.	rairly difficult	14.5
3.	Not too difficult	31.1
4.	Fairly easy	28.7
5.	Very easy	22.7

2. And how about the discipline in the program - was it:

Score	Category	Percent
1.	Very tough	5.3
2.	Fairly tough	17.1
3.	Not too tough	32.7
4.	Fairly easy	23.7
5.	Very easy	21.1

3. Thinking back over your entire experience in this program, how satisfied or dissatisfied are you with it overall?

1.	Very satisfied	40.8
2.	Somewhat satisfied	46.2
3.	Somewhat dissatisfied	7.8
4.	Very dissatisfied	5.2



dissatisfaction. Similarly, they are not likely to report that a task is difficult unless they are actively experiencing problems in performance, or to report that discipline is tough unless they (or their co-workers) are having problems in meeting the standards imposed. Humans are adaptable to their environment, which is one thing which makes the wide variety of settings in which people work possible. As can be seen from Table 5.30, the vast majority of respondents report that their work was easy, or at least not too difficult (82 percent), that the discipline was easy, or at least not too tough (77 percent), and that they were, overall, satisfied with their programs (87 percent).

Tables 5.31 and 5.32 show the proportions of programs which the respondents felt to be difficult, tough, or dissatisfying (the extreme two categories of each distribution were combined), broken down by types of participants. One pattern that emerges from these tables is the fact that dissatisfaction is not merely a function of difficulty or discipline. College students, who report the highest levels of both difficulty of tasks and toughness of discipline, also report the lowest rates of dissatisfaction with the program. On the other hand, high school graduates, who describe their programs nearly as frequently as tough and difficult as do college students, report almost double the dissatisfaction rate. High school dropouts report an awareness that the program was difficult at about the same rates as do high school students, but the high school students are the



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>This report cannot address the question of the relationship of the perceived properties of the programs with various labor market outcomes. However, previous experience with job satisfaction in the earlier NLS cohorts indicates that this index is related to job turnover and occupational status.

Table 5.31 Perceptions of Employment and Training, by Selected Characteristics

Participant characteristic	Percent reporting	Percent reporting discipline was tough	Percent reporting
Character 13t1c	WOLK WAS ATTITICATE	discipitile was cough	1 0155ac151acc1011
Total	17.5	22.4	13.0
Enrollment status			
High school dropout	17.0	28.6	19.1
High school student	15.4	18.7	10.9
College student	24.4	26.1	8.1
Nonenrolled high	10.2	04.4	35.0
school graduate	19.3	24.4	15.0
Age			
14-15	15.8	15.7	12.3
16-17	15.5	21.3	11.1
18-19	18.9	24.3	15.ປ
20-21	18.8	25.3	12.8
T			
Income Less than \$5,000	17.8	27.4	4
5,000-9,999	17.0	27.4 26.0	11.4
10,000-14,999	13.7	14.1	7.8
15,000 or more	19.5	19.6	13.3
		, , ,	
Region			
Northeast	19.0	26.3	4.0
North central	17.7	22.8	11.4
South West	13.3 20.2	17.6 23.2	10.1
M42 C	20.2	25.2	19.6
Type of program			) 
Summer, not enrolled	8.4	26.1	14.2
Summer, enrolled	17.3	18.4	9.5
Year-round, not enrolled	13.6	26.2	16.9
Year-round, enrolled	17.)	21.2	11.6
	L		



Table 5.32 Perceptions of Employment and Training Programs, Race  $\sim$  Sax Interactions

Race				Percent reporting discipline was tough					
	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
Black	12.2	12.7	12.5	21.0	19.9	20.5	14.2	32.9	13.6
Hispanic	12.5	21.3	17.2	27.0	26.7	26.9	10.2	18.5	14.7
White	15.6	25.2	20.5	16.3	28.9	22.9	13.5	11.7	12.2
Total	14.1	20.6	17.5	19.1	25.7	22.4	13.4	12.6	13.6



least likely of all groups to say the discipline was tough. High school students report nearly the same low level of dissatisfaction with their programs as do college students.

Satisfaction with employment and training has a different pattern from descriptions of difficulty and discipline. Here, those out of school are more likely to report dissatisfaction than are those still enrolled. This needs further study, of course, but allows some interesting speculation. On the one hand, those with higher levels of education appear to be in more difficult programs. Those who are still in school do not seem to be at all dissatisfied, regardless of this demand. On the other hand, high school graduates and dropouts, who are presumably much more involved in getting situated in the labor force than are youth still in school, are reporting more frequent dissatisfaction with the program. This could indicate that these program participants require a somewhat more directly useful type of program than do the enrolled youth.

There are large differences between income groups in their perceptions of training programs, especially for the proportion dissatisfied. The percent reporting difficulty with work, tough discipline, and dissatisfaction with program all decline with increasing income, up to the \$15,000 level. The upper income group, however, has a relatively high percentage reporting negatively on all three items.

Perceptions of programs also vary by region. Compared to any of the other three regional divisions, Western programs are somewhat more often seen as difficult, with tough discipline, and, especially, as unsatisfactory. Programs in the South, on the other hand, are least likely to be reported in any of these categories.



Differences by type of program are rather mixed. The "summer not enrolled" participants are much less likely than any of the others to say that their work was difficult, but more likely to say that the discipline was tough. The summer enrolled group was no different from the year-round groups in their perception of difficulty, but had the lowest percent reporting tough discipline or dissatisfaction with the program. Taking all three items together, the year-round, not enrolled participants were the most negative about their programs. They were more likely than any of the others to say that the work was difficult, and they had the largest proportion who were dissatisfied with their programs.

Table 5.32 reports the percent with problems on the three items by race and sex. While the results must be looked at with caution, it is clear that the programs are experienced quite differently for the six race-sex groups. One of the most striking results in this table is the almost complete absence of any sex differences in program descriptions among blacks, despite strong sex differences for the other two racial groups. Blacks as a group also see their programs as difficult or having tough discipline less often than do either whites or Hispanics. White and Hispanic males are the most likely to report that the programs were difficult, with between one-fifth and onequarter of the groups so reporting. There was little race difference on program difficulty for females. For severity of discipline, over a quarter of white males and of Hispanics of both sexes reported that the discipline of their programs was tough. For blacks, about 20 percent of both sexes so reported. White females were least likely to report tough discipline. Virtually all of the sex difference on this variable can be attributed to this group. There are no dramatic sex or race effects on levels of



dissatisfaction with the programs. Hispanic males report the highest level, which may be related to their descriptions of the programs as difficult and tough. They are almost twice as likely to report dissatisfaction as are Hispanic females. This suggests that some investigation should be made into the appropriateness of the activities and outcomes associated with Hispanic programs. The sex differences for blacks and whites are small, and in the opposite direction, with slightly more females reporting dissatisfaction.

Overall, the results seem to show that there is a general satisfaction among the participants with their programs. Most believe that their experience will be useful to them in becoming employed. The lower level of respondents reporting that the programs are directly useful to them on the job needs further investigation. Given that many of the programs have as their aim only general skills and job finding rather than specific occupational training, this seems to be a reasonable difference. As far as can be told from the available data, the government training experience is comparable to other types of job experience in terms of overall satisfaction.

## GENERAL COMMENTS ON GOVERNMENT EMPLOYMENT AND TRAINING PROGRAMS

The description of the various government employment and training programs reported by the young people in the NLS has covered a fairly wide range of topics. Some trends running through the data can be identified.

The major source of government sponsored employment and training, CETA, explicitly assumes that local control of programs will allow them to respond more accurately to local needs than would be possible with a standardized national level administration. The division of the nation into four regions



is admittedly a rather global way of proxying local conditions, but it is clear that the design of the program has allowed many regional differences in program focus and services.

Sex and race differences are common in the tables in this chapter. The sex differences observed in the labor market are repeated in the government programs. Young women tend to receive jobs and training in traditionally female occupations, while young men are concentrated in traditionally male areas. Sex differences are generally strongest among Hispanics, and notably weakest among blacks. Young women are much more likely than young men to receive childcare services, and to say that they terminated from programs for family reasons, reflecting the continuing impact of women's family roles on their labor force participation. The implications of the overall racial differences are less easily interpreted than are the sex differences. Some of the comparisons between blacks and whites show, perhaps, a more immediate concern of blacks for improving their chances of getting a good job after participation.

Age, enrollment status, and type of program all tap in some way the transition from the student status to the labor force. Older respondents, those out of school, and those both out of school and enrolled in year-round programs are all more likely to be directly concerned with getting permanent employment than are their counterparts, younger, in-school, and youth in summer programs. Both programs and participant reactions to programs reflect this difference in orientation. High school students, younger than other groups, get lower skilled jobs, are more likely to be oriented to the pay for a job rather than to the opportunity to learn marketable skills, and



tend to receive job placement rather than classroom training. Older respondents, those out of school, and those in year-round training give responses which indicate that they are more oriented to gaining skills.

Despite criticisms that CETA programs in particular are overloaded with make-work jobs, or jobs with no activities, the participants themselves seem to feel good about their programs. Most believe that the programs will help them to get better jobs. The ratings of program difficulty and discipline, when interpreted with the recognition that people tend not to complain about their situations unless there is an active problem confronting them, indicate that there is a reasonable level of challenge in the programs. Overall, there is a very respectable level of satisfaction with training across all groups.



#### CHAPTER 6

#### **WORKING STUDENTS**

School enrollment and labor force participation account for the bulk of activity of youth. In the last decade or so, the propensity of youth to combine both of these activities has increased markedly. This chapter will examine those individuals who both attend school and work, focusing on race and sex differences in the proportions of students who are also employed.

More than one-fourth of youth age 14-22 are employed students. Just under 40 percent of this group are age 16-17, while 20 percent are 14-15 years of age and about 25 and 15 percent are age 18-19 and 20-22, respectively. This age composition of the employed student group reflects the fact that school enrollment rates fall with age while employment rates rise with age.

Focusing on the youth population age 16-22, Table 6.1 shows the racesex composition of the employed student group as well as the percentage of

Table 6.1 Race and Sex Composition of Employed Students and Percentage of Students in Each Race-Sex Group Who are Employed

	Female						
	Black	Hispanic	White	Black	Hispanic	White	Total
Percentage distribution	4.6	1.8	40.8	4.2	2.5	46.1	100
Percent employed	32.1	33.5	51.1	31.2	41.4	52.5	48.4

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 16-22 on the interview date who were employed students. (N=6,790,000)



See, for example, the labor force participation rates of enrolled youth reported in the Employment and Training Report of the President 1979, Table B-6, p. 299.

students in each race-sex group who are employed. As indicated in the second row of the table, nearly half of these students are also employed. At the same time, it is clear that white students are considerably more likely than their minority counterparts to be employed: while the majority of both male and female students who are white are employed, only about 40 percent of Hispanic male students and roughly a third of Hispanic female students and of black students are employed. Further stratification by age (see Figure 6.1) reveals that employment of students increases with age. The race differences are generally largest among students age 16 and 17. However, race differences persist among older students: while nearly 60 percent of white students age 20-22 are employed, the corresponding figures for Hispanics and blacks are just under 50 percent and about 40 percent, respectively.

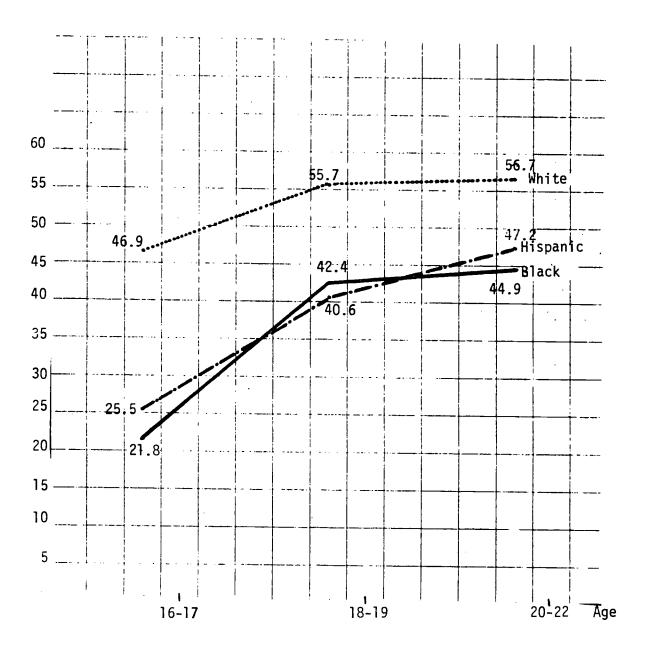
Table 6.2 shows the employment and labor force participation rates of high school and college students, by sex and race. Among high school students whites are almost twice as likely as their minority counterparts to be employed. However, it should be noted that these differences in employment overstate race differences in the propensity to work. That is, the labor force participation rate of white high school students is not twice that of minority high school students; in fact, it is about 10-15 percent (not percentage points) higher for males and 25 percent or more higher for females. The markedly higher incidence of unemployment of minority students accounts for the large employment gap and small

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Exceptions to this statement are evident for the oldest minority males.



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>One-half of these employed students are 16-17, 30 percent are 18-19, and almost 20 percent are 20-22 years old.

Figure 6.1 Percentage of Students Who are Employed, by Age, Race, and Sex

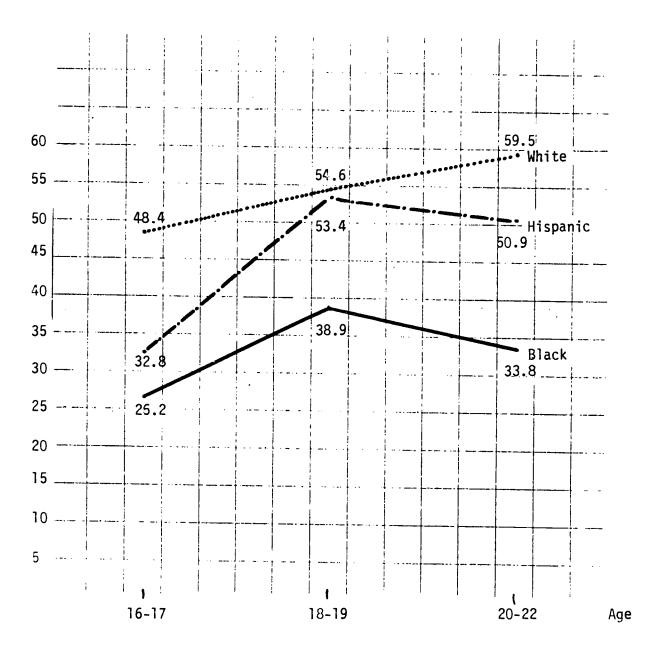


Graph A: Females

UNIVERSE: Female civilians age 16-22 on interview date who were employed students. (N=3,210,000)



Figure 6.1 (continued)



Graph B: Males

UNIVERSE: Male civilians age 16-22 on interview date who were employed students. (N=3,580,000)



Table 6.2 Employment and Labor Force Participation Rates of High School and College Students, by Sex and Race

		Female			Male		Total		
	Black	Hispanic	White	Black	Hispanic	White	iotai		
	<u> </u>	High school students							
Percentage employed	25.1	28.4	47.3	29.1	38.0	52.2	45.5		
Percentage in labor force	50.8	42.7	62.7	59.5	57.2	65.7	62.1		
		Col	lege stu	idents					
Percentage employed	47.8	44.5	57.4	38.4	51.8	53.0	53.7		
Percentage in labor force	63.5	55 <b>.6</b>	63.4	54.0	58.9	<b>57.</b> 8	60.3		

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 16-22 on interview date who were enrolled in high school or college. (N=9,100,000 for high school and N=4,930,000 for college)



participation gap among those enrolled in high school. In part, then, the overrepresentation of white youth in the employed student group reflects the adverse unemployment experience of black and Hispanic youth.

In general, racial differences in employment as well as in labor force participation rates are smaller among college students than among high school students (Table 6.2). It is of interest to note that the overall labor force participation rate for high school students is slightly greater than that for college students. At the same time, however, college students are more likely to be employed than their high school courterparts—while nearly 54 percent of college students are employed the corresponding figure is just over 45 percent for high school students who are at least 16 years old (and 36 percent for all high school students).

The majority of students in each region outside of the South is employed, while only 40 percent of Southern students have jobs. This regional difference reflects (at least in part) the greater concentration of minority youth in the South. Students reporting health problems are only about two-thirds as likely as other students to be employed.

The percentage of students who are employed increases steadily with household income: while 41 percent of students from households with income below ten thousand dollars are employed, the corresponding figures are 47 percent where income is between ten and twenty thousand dollars and 55 percent among youth from households where income exceeds twenty thousand dollars. The influence of family background on the likelihood of a student being employed is further illustrated by the fact that fewer than 40 percent of students whose mothers did not complete high school are



employed compared with the majority of students whose mothers completed twelve or more years of school. Finally, educational expectations are also relevant here: while 50 percent of students who expect a college education are currently employed, the corresponding figure for those expecting to complete high school is less than 45 percent and for those who must expect to finish high school it falls to 34 percent.

The policy relevance of the data discussed here stems not so and from the immediate implications of being an employed student but rather cosmathe longer-term consequences of employment activity of students. Specializally, it appears likely that employment experience gained as a student facilitates subsequent (postschool) success in the labor market. To the extent that this is indeed the case, the large racial gap in employment rates of young students implies that minority youth (as well as those from lower-income backgrounds) may be at a serious disadvantage by the time they finish school. Programs that would enable these youth to more easily gain valuable work experience prior to leaving school coold, in this context, play a key role in reducing racial differences in labor market success among out-of-school youth and adults.



### CHAPTER 7

## TORON TOR THE LABOR FORCE

As noted previously, the overwhelming majority of youth are either in school, in the labor force, or both. However, more than 6 percent of youth--over two million individuals--are outside of the labor force and not enrolled in school. In this chapter we provide an overview of these "outsiders" and examine the reasons given for nonparticipation in the work force.

Not surprisingly, age is significantly related to membership in this group. Youth aged 14 and 15 represent 23 percent of the youth population being studied, but account for only 4 percent of the nonenrolled/not in the labor force group. Conversely, those age 20-22 comprise almost 39 percent of the "outsider" group, while accounting for 27 percent of the total youth population.

As indicated in Table 7.1 white females constitute the majority (55 per cent) of the group, totalling over one million. Females represent more than three-fourths of the group's membership. Examination of the incidence reservite percentage of each race/sex group which belongs to the "outsider" group-reveals, however, that [controlling for sex] minority youth are considerably more likely than their white counterparts to be neither in school nor in the labor force. The incidence rate for black females is almost 50 percent above that for white females, and the rate for Hispanic women is more than twice as high as that for white women. Incidence rates among young men are all quite low (below 5 percent), but are twice as high for minority youth as for whites.

Other characteristics of those outside of the labor force and not in school include relatively low levels of educational attainment (28 percent of school dropouts are "outsiders" compared with 11 percent of nonenrolled

For purposes of defining the universe here, the small percentage of youth interviewed in early summer are excluded from the analysis. Consequently, some percentages reported below will differ slightly from comparable figures found else here in this report.



Table 7.1 Race and Sex Composition of Nonenrolled Youth Not in the Labor Force and Incidence Rates  $^{\rm d}$ 

Characteristic		Female			Total		
- Character 13th	Black	Hispanic	White	Black	Hispanic	White	10641
Percentace distribution	14.3	8.8	54.7	5.0	2.4	14.8	100
incidence rate <sup>a</sup>	12.5	17.2	8.5	4.6	4.7	2.3	6.2

a Incidence rate measures nonenrolled/out of labor force youth as a percentage of all youth in the corresponding race/sex group--i.e., the ld.? percent of youth not in school and not in the labor force who are black females represent 12.5 percent of all black female youth.

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979 who were not in the labor force and not enrolled in school on the interview date. (N=2,030,000)



graduates) and poor health status (21 percent of those with health problems are "outsiders" compared with 5 percent of other youth). The importance of marital status and parenting is evidenced by the fact that 27 percent of ever-married youth are outsiders (compared to less than 4 percent of the never-married), and 43 percent of young women with children are neither in school nor working compared to about 5 percent of young women without children.

In addition, among those respondents for whom father's occupation and mother's educational attainment can be ascertained, we find the following differences: fewer than 4 percent of youth from white-collar homes are outsiders, compared with more than 8 percent of those from blue-collar homes; and over 12 percent of those whose mothers did not complete high school are nonenrolled and out of the labor force compared to 5 percent of those whose mothers were graduates and about 3 percent of those whose mothers completed some college.

Respondents not in the labor force were asked if they wanted a regular job now (either full- or part-time). In addition, they were also asked either why they weren't looking for work (if "yes" to the previous question) or why they did not want work (if "no"). Among those not in the labor force and not in school, almost 55 percent indicated that they would like a regular job. However, since nearly 40 percent of this group indicated that they weren't currently looking for work due to family responsibilities, child care, pregnancy, or ill health, this 55 percent figure should not be viewed as indicating those who both want and are available for work.



Table 7.2 presents the distribution of reasons for not looking for work or not wanting work for those out of school and not in the labor force, stratified by sex. Almost one-third of the group as a whole<sup>2</sup> cited difficulties in arranging child care or family responsibilities as the principal reason for being out of the labor force. No males gave these reasons, which were provided by nearly 40 percent of the females (almost one-half million individuals) and by over 60 percent of female outsiders with children. This suggests that greater availability of low-cost day care services might serve to facilitate access to the labor market for young mothers and other young women with child care responsibilities.<sup>3,4</sup>

An additional 12 percent of the outsider group (15 percent of the young women in the group) indicate pregnancy as the reason for not seeking or wanting employment. Nearly one-fourth of those women providing this reason are not married with spouse present, and it thus seems likely that many of these pregnancies are unwanted. Indeed, 13 percent of all female outsiders are never-married women with children, and presumably many of these children started out as unwanted pregnancies. To the extent that this is the case, it suggests that greater access to contraceptive knowledge and products would not only enable young women to plan more rationally for the future but would also in effect inhibit production of a serious barrier to labor force participation of single young women.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>It should be noted that respondents with difficulties in arranging child care or family responsibilities were roughly evenly divided between those indicating they would like a regular job now and those indicating they would not.



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>More precisely, this figure refers to the 75 percend of the "butsider" group who provided a reason for not being in the labor force.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Lack of day care facilities appears to have a particularly adverse effect on minority women. Among female outsiders, ll percent of whites indicate that difficulties in arranging child care are responsible for their not being in the labor force. The corresponding percentages for blacks and Hispanics are 26 and 29, respectively.

Table 7.2 Reasons for Not Looking for Work or Not Wanting Work of Nonenrolled Youth Not in the Labor Force, by Sex

(Percentage distributions)

Reason for not being in the labor force	Female	Male	Total
Couldn't find work or believe no work available	4.0	14.4	5.9
Personal limitations	5.5	10.6	6.6
Can't arrange child care	15.7	0.0	12.9
Family responsibilities	23.0	0.0	18.8
In other training ·	7.9	22.6	10.6
Ill health or disability	2.2	5.5	2.8
Pregnancy	14.9	0.0	12.2
Spouse or parents opposed	4.2	0.0	3.4
Does not want to work	8.6	8.3	8.5
Can't arrange transportation	5.8	8.2	6.2
Other	7.9	30.5	12.0
Total percent	100	00'	100

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979 who were not in the labor force and not enrolled in school on the interview date. (N=2,030,000)



Youth believing that no work was available in their line of work or area or indicating that they couldn't find any work represent 6 percent of non-enrolled/out of the labor force youth. Males are more likely to be in this category than females: 14 percent of male outsiders are in this group compared to 4 percent of female outsiders. Personal limitations—consisting primarily of lack of necessary schooling, training, skills, or experience—were cited by almost 7 percent of those not enrolled and out of the labor force as the principal reason for not being in the labor force. An additional 11 percent of outsiders cited their participation in training programs. Nearly 9 percent of the total group simply do not want to work, while another 6 percent indicate that difficulties in arranging transportation are responsible for their not looking for work. Ill health and parental/spouse opposition each accounts for about 3 percent of outsiders, while the remaining 12 percent provide unspecified other reasons.

Clearly, the reasons given by nonenrolled youth for not being in the labor force are many and varied. At the same time, the bearing of and caring for children as well as more general family responsibilities account for almost 45 percent of the outsiders. If one is interested in facilitating access to the labor market, particularly for young women, this latter finding suggests that such access can be enhanced in a short-run context by increased availability of low-cost day care facilities. From a longer-term perspective, improved youth knowledge of contraceptive techniques and easier availability of contraceptive products would also enhance young women's continued access to the labor market.



### CHAPTER 8

### JOB TURNOVER AND REASONS FOR LEAVING JOBS

An oft-cited characteristic of the youth labor market is a high degree of job turnover. In this chapter, data on youth employment patterns in 1978 for those youth who were employed during the year are examined in order to shed light on the extent of job turnover among youth. In addition, for those youth employed in 1978 who had left a job since January 1, 1978, we have examined the reasons for leaving the job. 1

Data on the number of jobs held in 1978 cross-classified by school enrollment status are shown in Table 8.1. The majority of employed youth held one job during the year, and only 15 percent held three or more jobs (three-fourths of this latter group held three jobs). It should be kept in mind that holding only one job is not, by itself, an indication of job stability: while 37 percent of those with one job were employed throughout the year, 27 percent were employed for fewer than 14 weeks. Thus, those youth with one job include individuals with only a casual attachment to the work force as well as the most stable employees. It is largely this reason, then, that underlies the similarities in the distributions and means in Table 8.1. At the same time, it is clear from the table that those youth who left school during the year are least likely to have held only one job, and they have the highest average number of jobs. This turnover presumably reflects the job shopping and worker/job mismatching that accompany the transition from school to work.



In order to avoid multiple counting of those youth who left more than one job in 1978, this latter analysis focuses on the most recent job that the respondent has left.

Table 8.1 Number of Jobs Held during 1978, by Enrollment Status

(Percentage distributions)

Number of Jobs in 1978	High school dropouts	High school graduates	Left school in 1978	Enrolled in 1978	Total
1	55.6	<b>57.5</b>	45.9	57.3	55.4
2	27.2	29.2	31.0	30.0	29.7
3 or more	17.1	13.4	22.3	12.8	14.9
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100
Means	1.69	1.59	1.83	1.59	1.64

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 16-22 on interview date who were emoloyed during 1978. (N=20,280,000)



Table 8.2 Number of Weeks Employed in 1978, by Enrollment Status

(Percentage distributions)

weeks worked in 1978	High school dropouts	High school graduates	Left school in 1978	Enrolled in 1978	Total
1-13	17.7	7.1	12.6	23.4	17.8
14-26	18.5	7.2	20.5	19.5	17.1
27 - 39	17.2	10.4	18.6	19.9	17.5
40-51	17.1	16.7	18.7	9.7	13.3
52	29.6	58.6	29.6	27.5	34.3
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100
Mean	33.9	43.7	35.3	31.0	34.5

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 16-22 on interview date who were employed during 1978. (N=20,280,000)



To get a better sense of job turnover, it is necessary to consider the duration of employment as well as the number of jobs. The relevant data are provided in Table 8.2. More than one-third of youth who held jobs in 1978 were employed for the entire year, with the remaining two-thirds almost evenly divided among those employed for 1-13, 14-26, 27-39, and 40-51 weeks, respectively. The stability of nonenrolled high school graduates is evident: nearly 60 percent of the group was employed throughout the year compared with less than half that percentage for each of the other three enrollment/attainment groups. Similarly, the more casual labor force attachment of students is evidenced by the fact that one in four students employed in 1978 was employed for no more than a fourth of the year. The fact that the weeks employed distributions for dropouts and school leavers are comparable to those of students and much less favorable than those of graduates probably reflects the labor market disadvantages of dropouts and the job shopping of school leavers.

Combining information from these first two tables allows one to calculate the mean weeks of employment per job in 1978, and the resulting figures confirm that nonenrolled high school graduates are considerably more stable than youth in the other three enrollment/attainment groups. While graduates were employed on average for more than 27 weeks per job, the corresponding figures for the other groups are all between 19 and 20 weeks. Data on spells of nonemployment (Table 4.3) confirm this pattern. Thus, apart from graduates, job turnover does appear to be quite high among youth, albeit for a variety of reasons.

Table 8.3 shows data on the number of jobs held cross-classified by sex and race. It is evident from both the distributions and means that



Table 8.3 Number of Jobs Held during 1978 by Sex and Race

(Percentage distributions)

Number of Jobs in	Female				Male		Total
1978	Black	Hispanic	White	Black	Hispanic	White	
1	69.2	60.8	54.7	62.4	59.7	52.8	55.4
2	24.5	28.7	30.6	27.3	27.8	30.0	29.7
3 or more	6.3	10.6	14.7	10.2	12.6	17.3	14.9
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Mean	1.39	1.54	1.64	1.52	1.57	1.70	1.64

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 16-22 on interview date who were employed during 1978. (N=20,280,000)



white youth are most likely to engage in multiple jobholding while black youth are least likely to do so. In addition, within each race males are somewhat more likely to have changed jobs during the year than females. A similar pattern is evident with regard to weeks of employment (see Table 8.4). Despite their greater number of jobs held, then, it appears that white youth do not suffer in terms of lost employment. In conjunction with the data on number of spells of nonemployment (see Table 4.7)—which indicate that minority youth are more prone to such spells—the picture that emerges is one in which job turnover appears to be higher among whites while the frictions accompanying such turnover seem to be greater for minority youth.

As noted previously, we have examined the reasons for leaving the last job cross-classified by age, school enrollment status, and sex/race group. Responses were available for fourteen different reasons, but these reasons can be collapsed into four broad groups: involuntary separations (layoff, plant closing, or end of temporary job; discharged or fired; program ended); quits for economic reasons (found a better job; didn't like employment conditions; wages were too low); quits because work interfered with school; and other reasons. The first two groups were each responsible for just under a third of total separations, while one-fifth of the separations took place because work interfered with school and other reasons accounted for the remaining 15 percent of the terminations.



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>This residual category includes those indicating they had left for a reason specified in the questionnaire (see tables below) as well as those who furnished a reason other than those provided for in the questionnaire.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Included in this group are some cases of students returning to school after vacation.

Table 8.4 Weeks Worked in 1978 by Sex and (Percentage distributions)

Weeks worked		Female	<del></del>	Γ –	Male	T-4-1	
in 1978	Black	Hispanic	White	Blac <sup>1</sup>	Hispanic	White	Total
1-13	31.4	28.6	17.2	26.6	20.5	14.7	17.8
14-26	23.6	17.4	18.1	22.8	15.5	14.7	17.1
27-39	18.0	14.0	17.8	15.7	18.0	17.6	17.5
40-51	9.5	19.0	13.4	11.8	11.9	13.7	13.3
52	17.6	21.0	33.5	23.1	34.1	39.2	34.3
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Mean	26.6	30.2	34.4	29.2	33.7	36.6	34.5

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 16-22 on interview date who were employed during 1978. (N=20,280,000)



Table 8.5 Reason for Leaving Last Job, by Age

(Percentage distributions)

Reason for leaving last job	16-17	18-19	20-22	Total
Involuntary separation	38.7	28.9	26.2	30.5
Layoff, etc.	25.5	19.4	17.5	20.3
Discharged, fired	4.6	4.5	4.2	4.5
End of program	8.6	5.0	4.3	5.7
Quit for economic reasons	28.6	33.1	34.0	32.2
For better job	6.7	11.5	14.7	11.4
Employment conditions	18.8	16.0	14.3	16.2
Wages too low	3.1	5.5	5.0	4.7
Interfered with school	21.9	21.5	20.9	21.4
Other reasons <sup>a</sup> (specified)	3.1	6.1	7.3	5.7
Other reasons (unspecified)	7.7	10.4	11.6	10.1
Total percent	100	100	100	100

<sup>\*</sup>Due to own illness, disability, entering armed forces, pregnancy, husband or wife changed jobs and/or moved, mother or father changed jobs and/or moved, family reasons (to get married, to care for children, illness of other family members).

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 16-22 on interview date who were employed during 1978 and had left a job since January 1, 1978. (N=14,070,000)



Examination of the reason for leaving last job cross-classified by age (Table 8.5) reveals that the importance of involuntary separations declines with age. While part of this pattern reflects the fact that younger youth are more likely to have left a previous job because of the end of a program to which the job was tied, the primary factor here is a clear age difference in the frequency of layoffs. The greater susceptibility of younger workers to layoffs presumably is a consequence (at least in part) of their lower levels of firm-specific human capital. Since younger workers are less likely to have had the opportunity to develop firm-specific skills, ceteris paribus, they are more vulnerable to layoffs. Among 16 and 17 year-olds, fully one-fourth of all separations fall into the layoff category.

A converse pattern is apparent for voluntary separations for economic reasons—these become increasingly important with age. This is particularly the case regarding quits because the respondent had found a better job, and to a lesser degree regarding quits because wages were too low. However, the importance of quits because of undesirable employment conditions declines with age. It is tempting to interpret this latter finding as a reflection of low levels of knowledge of the world of work among the youngest members of the youth labor force, leading in turn to greater job instability as the information—gathering search for a compatible worker—job match is pursued. In the same vein, the greater propensity among older workers who change jobs to quit for a better job probably reflects greater ongoing investment in job search by these workers, who are more likely to be



full-time in the work force and hence benefit more from a move to a better job. Quits because work interfered with school show no pattern with respect to age, while other reasons (both specified and unspecified) become somewhat more important in moving from younger to older workers.

Cross-classification of reason for leaving by enrollment status (Table 8.6) reveals the importance of the latter in affecting the former. Not surprisingly, the most obvious impact is on quits because work interfered with school: among job leavers nearly half of college enrollees and one-fourth of high school students left their last jobs for this reason, which was cited by fewer than 5 percent of those not in school. Conversely, quits for economic reasons are considerably more commonplace among out-of-school job leavers than among their enrolled counterparts, and this holds true for each individual reason.

Two points worth noting here are that quits due to undesirable employment conditions are cited more than twice as frequently by high school students than by college students, while among nonstudents quits to take a better job are cited twice as often by high school graduates as by school dropouts. The first point again underscores the value of previous work experience and knowledge gained for enhancing the compatibility of youthful worker/job matches, while the second point suggests that upward mobility in the labor market will be distinctly more difficult for those who fail to complete high school. The difficulties of dropouts in the labor market are evident when one notes that they constitute the group of job leavers most prone among the four enrollment groups to leave because (1) wages are too low, (2) employment conditions are undesirable, and (3) they were discharged or fired.



Table 8.6 Reason for Leaving Last Job, by Enrollment Status
(Percentage distributions)

Reason for leaving last job	High school dropout	High school student		Nonenrolled high school graduate	
Involuntary separation	31.6	39.2	25.6	25.2	30.5
Layoff, etc.	18.7	26.4	17.2	17.7	20.3
Discharged, fired	9.9	4.0	1.7	4.5	4.5
End of program	3.0	8.8	6.8	3.1	5.7
Quit for economic reasons	42.1	27.0	14.4	47.0	32.2
For better job	11.4	7.2	4.7	21.3	11.4
Employment conditions	23.3	16.5	7.5	19.0	16.2
Wages too low	7.4	3.3	2.1	6.5	4.7
Interfered with school	2.5	24.5	47.8	6.5	21.4
Other reasons <sup>a</sup> (specified)	10.4	2.3	1.6	10.1	5.7
Other reasons (unspecified)	13.3	6.9	10.6	11.2	10.1
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100

Due to own illness, disability, entering armed forces, pregnancy, husband or wife changed jobs and/or moved, mother or father changed jobs and/or moved, family reasons (to get married, to care for children, illness of other family members).

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 16-22 on interview date who were employed during 1978 and had left a job since January 1, 1978. (N=14,070,000)



From a policy perspective, the findings discussed above suggest that programs which provide youth with useful work experience, perhaps in several different employment situations, could prove quite helpful in reducing the high job turnover characteristic of the youth labor market. This would be the case particularly for high school students and for school dropouts. Improved knowledge of the world of work should reduce turnover arising from worker/job mismatches, and skill acquisition should diminish the vulnerability of young workers to layoffs.

Consideration of reason for leaving last job cross-classified by sex and race group (Table 8.7) reveals several interesting patterns. Young women who leave jobs are somewhat less likely to have terminated involuntarily, due to lower levels of layoffs, discharges, and firings. The impact of programs ending is greater for women, particularly among blacks. Quits for economic reasons account for similar percentages by sex for all job terminations. However, young men are somewhat more likely to have quit because of low wages or finding a better job, while young women show a greater (relative) propensity to quit due to undesirable employment conditions. The greatest sex difference is for "other reasons," which account for roughly 10 percent of male terminations and 20 percent of female terminations. Childbearing and other family/household responsibilities undoubtedly represent an important cause of this difference. Provision of information on birth control and child care services would presumably tend to reduce some of the differences by sex.



Hispanics constitute an exception here, with greater quits for economic reasons by male Hispanic job leavers.

Table 8.7 Reason for Leaving Last Job, by Sex and Race (Percentage distributions)

Reason for leaving last job		Female			Male		T-4-1
Teating last job	Black	Hispanic	White	Black	Hispanic	White	Total
Involuntary separation	43.1	34.4	26.5	45.8	37.8	30.0	30.5
Layoff, etc.	20.6	21.2	17.7	25.6	25.8	21.4	20.3
Discharged, fired	4.9	3.6	4.1	7.8	5.9	4.3	4.5
End of program	17.6	9.6	4.7	12.3	6.1	3.8	5.7
Quit for economic reasons	20.7	25.6	33.3	22.3	31.3	34.6	32.2
For better job	3.9	5.6	9.6	6.5	13.1	15.0	11.4
Employment conditions	13.0	15.7	19.7	10.1	12.4	14.5	16.2
Wages too low	3.9	4.3	4.1	5.8	5.9	5.1	4.7
Interfered with school	14.3	17.3	20.3	20.0	21.1	23.7	21.4
Other reasons <sup>a</sup> (specified)	10.6	11.9	9.4	4.1	2.1	2.0	5.7
Other reasons (unspecified)	11.3	10.9	10.5	7.8	7.7	10.1	10.1
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>Due to own illness, disability, entering armed forces, pregnancy, husband or wife changed jobs and/or moved, mother or father changed jobs and/or moved, family reasons (to get married, to care for children, illness of other family members).

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 16-22 on interview date who were employed during 1978 and had left a job since January 1, 1978. (N=14,070,000)



With regard to differences by race, the disproportionate participation of minority youth in employment programs is reflected in the fact that compared with whites, proportionately three times as many blacks and twice as many Hispanics left their last job because of the end of a program. In general, involuntary separations are least frequent among whites (less than 30 percent of separations) and most evident among blacks (approaching half of all job leavers), with Hispanics occupying an intermediate position. A reverse pattern is apparent for quits for economic reasons: over one-third of white job leavers quit for economic reasons, compared to about 30 percent of Hispanics and roughly one-fifth of blacks.

These data suggest that employed minority youth are more likely to lose their jobs and less willing to leave their jobs than their white counterparts. Such an inference must be regarded cautiously, since the data do not refer to all employed youth but rather to those who have left their last job. If the inference is correct, however, it suggests the possibility of discrimination in the labor market; and this possibility should be examined in a multivariate framework, controlling for factors other than race that might influence job turnover behavior.



 $<sup>^{5}</sup>$ This inference is consistent with the observation earlier in this chapter noting that minority youth appear to have more difficult transitions between jobs than their white counterparts.

### CHAPTER 9

# JOB SEARCH ACTIVITIES OF YOUTH

There were approximately 3.4 million unemployed youth 16 and over in the NLS sample. About the same number of employed youth had actively looked for other work within four weeks of the survey week, or 24 percent of all employed youth. This study is restricted to youth 16-22 years of age. 1

Information on job search activities was available in the following areas: reasons for seeking work; average number of weeks looking for work; number of methods used to find work; and type of method used to seek employment. This information was available both for unemployed persons and employed persons who had searched for another job within four weeks of the interview. Table 9.1 presents the characteristics of employed youth who had been looking for other work. By and large, employed youth were equally likely to be seeking other jobs, irrespective of age, sex, race, or enrollment status. The exception was that youth age 20-22 and Hispanics had the lowest percentage of employed job seekers.

# Reasons for Seeking Work by the Unemployed

The reasons for seeking work were not uniform by age, race, sex, or enrollment status. Table 9.2 presents the main reasons unemployed youth were looking for work classified by age, sex, race, and enrollment status. Nearly 54 percent of the unemployed youth said that their major reason for seeking work was financial, i.e., they needed money. Overall, 9 percent of the youth were seeking work because they had lost their previous job.



A small number of persons interviewed during the summer of 1979 are not included in this analysis.

Table 9.1 Proportion of Employed Youth Looking for Other Work, by Selected Characteristics

Characteristic	Percent of total employed
Age 16-17	26.2
18-19	25.5
20-22	21.5
Sex	
Female	24.0
Male	24.1
Race	
Black	26.8
Hispanic	18.7
White	24.0
Enrollment status	
High school dropout	25.3
High school student	24.2
College student	27.5
Nonenrolled high school graduate	21.8
Total	24.0
<u> </u>	

UNIVERSE: Employed civilians age 16-22 on interview date who are looking for other work. (N=3,370,000)



Table 9.2 Main Reason Unemployed Looked for Work, by Selected Characteristics

Characteristic	Lost job	Quit job	Left school	Enjoy working	Help with family expenses	Wanted temporary work	Needed money	To support self	Other
Age									
16-17 18 <b>-</b> 19	4.8 11.6	5.0 13.6	1.8	2.1 2.0	3.0 4.3	4.5	64.4	2.3 5.3	12.0
20-22	12.9	15.6	2.6	2.2	2.5	2.3	41.6	7.7	12.6
Sex									
Female Male	6.9	9.0	2.1	3.2 0.8	4.3	4.1	53.5 54.5	5.3 3.5	11.6
Race							01,5	0.3	10.0
Black	7.5	5,9	2.2	3.0	4.8	3.3	52.5	8,1	12.5
Hispanic White	12.3 9.0	10.1	2.1	0.7	8.3 2.3	2.3	50.6 54.9	2.3	10.8
Enrollment status									
High school dropout	13.4	11.6	3.9	0.8	5.6	0.9	45.4	5.8	12.3
High school student College student Nonenrolled high	4.1 6.2	4.6 12.2	0.7	2.2	3.3	4.5 8.7	67.2 51.2	2.1 7.4	11.3 8.9
school graduate	15.9	21.4	4.5	3.2	1.1	2.1	33.6	7.1	10.6
Total	8.8	10.2	2.2	2.1	3.4	3.6	54.0	4.5	11.2

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 16-22 who were unemployed on interview date. (N=3,410,000)

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Need for money was cited more often by 64 percent of the youngest group and by 42 percent of the oldest. About one-fourth of youth 18 years and older were seeking work because they had either lost or left their last job. About 10 percent of those age 16-17 sought work for these reasons.

Approximately one-fifth of the Hispanics and whites were seeking work because they either lost or quit their previous job, but only 13 percent of the blacks gave this reason for seeking employment. Slightly over 8 percent of the Hispanics stated they sought work to help defray family expenses, compared to about 5 percent of the blacks and 2 percent of the whites. Eight percent of the blacks wanted employment in order to support themselves, as compared to 2 percent of the Hispanics and 3 percent of the whites.

Among males, 23 percent stated they were seeking work because they either lost or quit their previous job, compared to about 16 percent of females. About 4 percent of females and 2 percent of males stated they wanted work to assist with family expenses. Three percent of the females but less than 1 percent of males sought employment because they enjoyed working. Virtually no other differences were found between males and females in their main reasons for seeking work.

Following enrollment status, the main differences in reasons for seeking work appear in the proportion who had either quit or lost their last job. Nine percent of those enrolled in high school gave these reasons for seeking work, in comparison to 37 percent of high school graduates who were not enrolled in college. Among high school dropouts, 25 percent were searching for work because they either lost or quit their previous job, and



nearly 6 percent were seeking work to assist with family expenses. About 3 percent of high school students were seeking work because of family expenses.

## Reasons for Seeking Work by the Employed

Table 9.3 presents the main reasons employed youth were looking for a new job. Nearly 38 percent of employed youth were looking for other work primarily because of inadequate pay at their current job. An additional 13 percent desired full-time work, and 13 percent wanted to enter a different field.

About 40 percent of employed youth 17 years and younger stated they sought work because of inadequate pay at their current job, compared to 33 percent of youth age 20-22. Half of the employed blacks were seeking a new job because of inadequate pay, in comparison with about 36 percent of both whites and Hispanics. In addition, about 9 percent of the blacks were seeking full-time work as compared to 15 percent of Hispanics and 14 percent of whites.

Forty percent of males and 35 percent of females said inadequate pay was their major reason for seeking work. Finally, more of the youth enrolled in high school sought a new job because of inadequate pay than did high school dropouts and high school graduates not enrolled in college. For youth enrolled in college, the rate was even lower. In addition, more high school dropouts and college-enrolled youth cited a desire for full-time work as their main reason for seeking new employment than did students enrolled in high school or high school graduates not enrolled in college.



Table 9.3 Main Reason Employed Youths Looked for Work, by Selected Characteristics
(Percentage distributions)

Characteristic	Advancement	Pay	Working conditions	Full-time work	Skills, experience	New location	Different  field	Other	Total percent
Age								-	per cent
16-17 18-19 20-22	1.2 1.8 4.5	39.3 41.2 33.1	6.2 4.2 5.2	11.8 14.9 13.1	1.8 3.0 4.7	1.6 0.8 3.1	13.6 14.0 11.8	24.4 20.1 24.5	100 100 100
Sex			<b>.</b>						
Female Male	3.5 2.0	35.3 39.7	4.9 5.3	14.4 12.5	2.9 3.8	1.0 2.7	13.4 12.7	24.7	100 100
Race Black Hispanic White	2.7 4.4 2.6	50.3 37.0 36.1	5.3 5.9 5.1	8.9 15.1 13.9	3.5 1.7 3.4	0.9 1.7 2.0	8.7 11.3 13.6	19.7 22.9 23.3	100 100 100
Educational status High school dropout High school student College student Nonenrolled high		37.8 43.9 30.5	6.8 5.4 2.9	18.0 11.8 19.3	0.7 2.4 5.3	2.1 0.5 1.6	13.4 10.1 14.5	19.0 24.3 25.7	100 100 100
school graduate	5.2	36.5	5.4	9.5	4.1	3,0	14.3	21.9	100
Total	2.7	37.6	5.1	13.4	3.4	1.9	13.0	22.9	100

UNIVERSE: Employed civilians age 16-22 on interview date who were looking for other work. (N=3,370,000)



# Average Number of Weeks Looking for Work

On average, unemployed youth had been searching about 8 weeks for work, and employed youth had been looking 7 weeks (Table 9.4). Unemployed youth 20-22 years of age searched for work longer than younger youth. Hispanics had been searching 7 weeks for work as compared to 8 weeks for both whites and blacks. There was virtually no difference between males and females in the number of weeks looking for work. However, high school graduates not enrolled in college and high school dropouts had been looking for an average of 9 weeks as compared to 7 weeks for high school enrolled youth and 6 weeks for college enrolled youth.

For employed youth, there was virtually no variation in weeks looked by age, and differences by sex, race and enrollment status were not large. For example, Hispanics had looked for work about 5 weeks in comparison to 6 weeks for blacks and 7 weeks for whites. Females had searched one week longer than males.

### Number of Job Search Methods

Table 9.5 presents the number of job search methods used by unemployed youth. Job seekers were asked to list types of activity used to find employment. These could include contacting an employer directly, looking in the newspaper, contacting friends and relatives, or a variety of other activities. Multiple responses are possible. The number of methods used to find employment is of specific interest in examining job search behavior of youth. A job seeker could list five or more methods to locate work, but most used only one method. Among unemployed youth, nearly 86 percent used only one or two methods. For the most part, there was only slight variation in the



Table 9.4 Average Number of Weeks Looked for Work by Unemployed and Employed Youth, by Selected Characteristics

	Average weeks lo	oked
Characteristic	Unemployeda	Employed <sup>b</sup>
Age 16-17 18-19 20-22	7.3 7.1 9.5	6.3 6.7 6.8
Sex Female Male	7.9 7.5	5.9 7.4
Race Black Hispanic White	8.1 7.3 7.6	6.3 5.4 6.8
Enrollment status High school dropout High school student College student Nonenrolled high school graduate	9.3 6.9 5.9 8.7	6.9 6.2 6.0 7.4
Total	7.7	6.7

<sup>a</sup>UNIVERSE: Employed civilians age 16-22 on interview date who were looking for other work. (N=3,370,000)

**b**UNIVERSE: Civilians age 16-22 who were unemployed on interview date. (N=3,410,000)



Table 9.5 Number of Job Search Methods Used by Unemployed Youth, by Selected Characteristics

(Percentage distributions)

27.6 32.8 34.8 30.9 31.0	9.2 12.0 15.1 11.8 10.9	1.9 3.1 1.8 3.2 1.1	100 100 100 100
32.8 34.8 30.9 31.0	12.0 15.1 11.8 10.9	3.1 1.8 3.2 1.1	100 100 100 100
32.8 34.8 30.9 31.0	12.0 15.1 11.8 10.9	3.1 1.8 3.2 1.1	100 100 100 100
34.8 30.9 31.0 32.7	15.1	3.2 1.1 2.0	100 100 100
31.0	10.9	2.0	100
31.0	10.9	2.0	100
32.7	10.3	2.0	100
			4
			4
26.2	122	1 0 0	4
	12.2	2.2	100
30.7	11.8	2.3	100
İ			
33.0	12.5	1.7	100
28.7	8.7	1.9	100
32.3	12.3	4.1	100
22.1	16.2	2.0	100
1 33.1	10.3	2.9	100
		1	. 100
	32.3	32.3 12.3	32.3 12.3 4.1

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 16-22 who were unemployed on interview date. (N=3,410,000)



number of job search methods used by unemployed youth regardless of age, race, sex, or enrollment status. More youth age 16-17 used only one method than did youth age 20-22--61 percent as compared to 48 percent. Differences by sex, race and enrollment status were not remarkable.

Table 9.6 presents the number of methods used by employed job seekers to locate work. More than half of employed youth also relied on one job search method. Here again there was minimal variation in the number of methods used by age, race, sex, or school enrollment status. Younger youth age 16-17, males, high school students and high school graduates not enrolled in college tended to use only one job search method more frequently.

## Job Search Methods of Unemployed Youth

The types of job search activities used by unemployed youth during the four weeks before the interview are listed in Table 9.7. Again multiple responses were possible. Their most frequently used job search activity was making contact directly with an employer, a technique used by approximately 65 percent of the unemployed youth. Looking in the newspaper for possible job openings was the second most popular technique, used by 36 percent of the unemployed. Friends and relatives were a source of job information for about 17 percent, and the state employment service was used by about 15 percent. Other job search activities of the unemployed included private employment agencies, 4 percent; the school employment service, 6 percent; placing or answering ads, 7 percent; and other activities, 10 percent.

An examination of types of job search activities by age, race, sex, and enrollment status shows some differences. However, contacting an employer directly remained the method used most frequently by youth for all the



Table 9.6 Number of Job Search Methods Used by Employed Youths, by Selected Characteristics

(Percentage distributions)

Characteristic	1	2	3	4 or more	Total percent
Age 16-17 18-19 20-22	62.7 56.3 57.3	32.5 34.8 27.7	3.6 6.9 13.1	1.2 2.0 1.9	100 100 100
Sex Female Male	55.0 61.3	32.0 31.3	11.3	1.7	100
Race Black Hispanic White	59.7 58.6 58.3	29.5 26.5 32.2	6.6 12.2 8.3	4.3 2.8 1.3	100 100 100
Enrollment status High school dropout High school student College student	55.3 62.5 54.6	34.2 34.1 31.6	9.3 3.0 11.9	1.3 .4 1.9	100 100 100
Nonenrolled high school graduate	58.6 58.4	28.6	10.0	2.9	100

UNIVERSE: Employed civilians age 16-22 on interview date who were looking for other work. (N=3,370,000)



Table 9.7 Proportion of Unemployed Using Various Methods of Job Search, by Selected Characteristics

Characteristic	State employment agency	Private employment agency	employer		Placed or answered	in news-	School employment	Other
Age		3,3110,	uncciy	relatives	aus	paper	service	
16-17 18-19 20-22	6.6 20.7 24.6	2.6 6.0 5.0	66.3 65.3 61.2	19.7 15.4 13.2	6.0 7.9 8.7	30.9 38.5 40.1	10.4 3.2 1.5	9.2 9.2 14.3
Sex								
Female Male	15.9 14.6	4.2 4.3	62.2 67.9	14.2 19.9	9.6 4.4	41.8 28.0	5.6 6.6	10.4 10.3
Race								
Black Hispanic White	17.4 15.3 14.5	4.6 3.0 4.2	66.5 63.6 64.3	14.0 21.3 17.5	9.5 5.5 6.5	32.7 28.6 37.3	5.9 8.3 5.9	9.5 11.4 10.6
Enrollment status								
High school dropout High school student College student Nonenrolled high	22.8 6.1 16.9	5.5 2.5 7.7	67.9 64.6 64.5	14.1 20.9 15.6	4.7 6.0 11.4	37.7 30.6 32.1	0.0 10.9 9.0	10.7 10.3 12.1
school graduate	27.1	5.1	61.0	11.0	11.9	46.7	0.8	9.1
Total	15.3	4.2	64.8	16.8	7.2	35.5	6.1	10.4

NIVERSE: Civilians age 16-22 who were unemployed on interview date. (N=3,410,000)



characteristics noted. The variation in job search activity of different youth groups arose from the extent each group made use of other methods.

Age. Older youth appear to rely on the state employment agencies more frequently than the younger age groups. Among youth age 20-22, about 25 percent used the employment service; 21 percent of youth age 18-19 used this method, but less than 7 percent of youth age 16-17. Older youth also tended to use the newspaper more frequently than younger groups. Nearly 40 percent of those youth age 20-22 and 39 percent of those age 18-19 looked for work through the newspaper. For youth age 16-17, the frequency dropped to 31 percent.

In contrast, the use of friends and relatives as a source of job information seems to vary inversely with age. As one gets older, the reliance on this information source declines somewhat. Nearly 20 percent of youth 17 years of age and younger used friends and relatives, but only about 15 percent of youth age 18-19 and 13 percent of youth age 20-22 relied on friends and relatives for job information.

Race. Breakdowns by race show that contacting an employer directly was by far the most frequently used method among all racial groups--64 percent of the whites, 67 percent of the blacks, and 64 percent of the Hispanics. In addition, 37 percent of the whites and 33 percent of the blacks looked in the newspaper for possible job openings in comparison to only 29 percent of the Hispanics. For Hispanics, friends and relatives were a source of job information for about 21 percent, compared to 18 percent of whites and 14 percent of blacks. Very slight variation was found among the different racial groups in their use of the state employment agencies, and private employment agencies were used very little by any group.



Sex. Females differed in their job search activities from males in that they relied less on direct contact with an employer and utilized friends and neighbors less than males. However, they searched the newspaper more frequently than males. For example, 42 percent of the females responded that they looked in the newspaper for work in comparison to only 28 percent of the males. In addition females relied less on friends and relatives for job information than males. The state employment service was used to nearly the same extent by both females and males.

Educational status. The most significant difference in job search activity by educational status appeared in the use of the state employment service. Youth who were either school dropouts or high school graduates but not enrolled in college relied more extensively on the state employment service than youth who were either enrolled in high school or attending college. About 23 percent of the high school dropouts and 27 percent of the high school graduates sought jobs through the employment service in comparison to 6 percent of those in high schools and 17 percent of those in college. Job information was sought from friends and relatives by 21 percent of the youth enrolled in high school, 14 percent of the high school dropouts, 11 percent of high school graduates, and 16 percent of the youth enrolled in college.

Newspapers were used by about 38 percent of the high school dropouts and 47 percent of the high school graduates in comparison to 31 percent of youth enrolled in high school and 32 percent of youth enrolled in college.

# Job Search Methods of Employed Youth

Types of job search techniques used by employed persons in locating other work during the four weeks previous to the interview are listed in



Table 9.8. The most frequently used method among the employed youth was making a contact directly with an employer, an approach used by nearly 60 percent of the employed youth. Looking in the newspaper for job listings was the second most popular method, used by approximately 34 percent of the youth; the third was relying on friends and relatives for information about jobs, used by about 23 percent. The state employment service was used by 10 percent of the youth. In addition, about 4 percent went through private employment agencies, which normally charge either the employer or the job seeker a fee for their services. The school employment service was used by 6 percent of the youth.

Age. Younger youth tend to use friends and relatives slightly more than older youth. In addition, the younger group relied less on the state employment service, and the older youth relied more extensively on private employment agencies. Even though the newspaper was the second most popular method among all youth, it was used least by those 16-17 years of age.

Race. Contacting an employer for a job was also the most frequently used method among the different racial groups: 60 percent of both whites and Hispanics, and 59 percent of blacks used this method. There was also only slight variation by race in the use of the newspaper. On the other hand, approximately 28 percent of the Hispanic youth sought jobs through information from friends and relatives in comparison to 24 percent of the whites and 18 percent of the blacks. Black youth, however, rely more than others on the state employment service. Nearly 18 percent of the employed blacks looked for work via the state employment service in comparison to 8 percent of Hispanics and 9 percent of whites. In addition, about 8 percent of the black youth relied on private employment agencies as compared to 3



Table 9.8 Percentage of Employed Youths Using Various Job Search Methods, by Selected Characteristics

Characteristic	Nothing	State employment agency	Private employment agency	employer	Friends and relatives		Looked in news- papers	School employment service	Other
Age 16-17 18-19 20-22 Sex	2.2 0.7 0.4	4.1 11.0 13.4	0.3 2.5 7.4	60.8 60.8 58.9	25.8 23.9 20.7	3.4 4.7 12.3	28.2 38.1 33.2	6.5 4.9 5.4	11.3 9.5 10.4
Female Male	0.8 1.2	10.0 10.1	5.1 2.5	60.1 60.0	21.7 24.5	8.2 6.2	39.0 28.9	5.6 5.4	10.7 10.0
Race Black Hispanic White	0.0 1.9 1.1	18.4 7.9 9.2	8.2 2.3 3.3	58.5 59.9 60.3	18.1 27.8 23.6	6.0 7.2 7.3	32.5 34.6 33.8	5.9 9.9 5.2	9.9 7.4 10.5
Enrollment status High school dropouts High school student College student Nonenrolled high	0.1 2.5 0.7	18.1 3.2 6.0	3.8 0.4 0.3	66.0 59.6 61.3	19.1 27.4 26.4	5.6 2.3 8.1	34.7 26.0 30.5	0.3 7.6 14.7	11.0 12.5 13.3
school graduate Total	1.0	14.5 10.1	8.3 3.7	57.3 60.1	19.7 23.2	11.2 7.2	41.2 33.7	0.6 5.5	6.6

UNIVERSE: Employed civilians age 16-22 on interview date who looked for other jobs. (N=3,370,000)



2:2

percent for white and 2 percent for Hispanic youth. The school employment service was used by nearly 10 percent of Hispanics as compared to 6 percent of blacks and 5 percent of whites.

Sex. Type of job search activity did not vary substantially by sex except in a few approaches. While 60 percent of both males and females contacted the employer directly for possible job openings, employed females, like their unemployed counterparts, tended to look in the newspaper more frequently than males. About 39 percent of the females searched the newspaper for jobs in comparison to 29 percent of the males. In addition, about 5 percent of the females used private employment agencies in comparison to 3 percent of the males. Friends and relatives as job search information sources were used slightly more by males than families: 25 percent versus 22 percent.

Educational status. The most significant difference in job search technique by educational status among employed youth was the use of the state employment service. High school dropouts (18 percent) and high school graduates not enrolled in college (15 percent) appeared to be the two most frequent users of the state employment service, compared to 3 percent of youth enrolled in high school and approximately 6 percent of those in college. Nearly 35 percent of high school dropouts also used the newspaper to find a job, as did 41 percent of high school graduates not enrolled in college. In contrast, only 26 percent of youth enrolled in high school and 31 percent of those in college used newspapers. Furthermore, about 27 percent of youth either enrolled in high school or college relied on friends and relatives for job information as compared to 20 percent of high school dropouts and college graduates.



## Summary of Findings

Most unemployed youth stated they searched for work because they needed money. About one-fourth of the unemployed youth 18 years and older said either a job layoff or voluntary termination were the main reasons for seeking work. About 10 percent of younger respondents cited these reasons. On average, unemployed youth had been searching for work about 8 weeks. In addition, about 86 percent of the unemployed used only one or two methods to find employment. The most frequently used job search method was to inquire about employment directly with an employer, a method used by 65 percent of unemployed youth. Looking in the newspaper was the second most popular method. Friends and relatives were consulted by 17 percent of unemployed youth. Approximately 15 percent of the unemployed used the state employment service.

By age, race, sex, and school enrollment status, some variation in job search techniques was observed. Older unemployed youth relied more on the state employment services. Hispanics relied on friends and relatives for job information more than whites and blacks. Females relied less on both employer contacts and friends/relatives but searched newspapers more frequently than males. Both high school dropouts and graduates who were not enrolled in college relied more on the state employment service than youth who were attending either high school or college.

Among the employed who were in search of a new job, about 38 percent were looking for work primarily because of inadequate pay. Low pay as the main reason was cited by half of the blacks and 37 percent of both whites and Hispanics. On average, the employed had been searching seven weeks for work. Slightly over 90 percent of employed youth utilized only one or



two methods to locate a new job. As in the case of unemployed, the most frequently used method was making contact directly with an employer, used by 60 percent of the youth. In general, similar variations in types of job search methods were noted for both employed and unemployed youth. An exception to these similarities among the employed and unemployed was in the use of the state employment services. Among unemployed youth, there was virtually no difference in the use of the employment service by race. For employed youth, more employed blacks used this agency, as compared to whites and Hispanics.

Finally, that there were an equal number of employed youth who were looking for other work as unemployed youth was an unexpected finding. Overall, employed job seekers were about one-fourth of total employed youth. The exceptions were older youth age 20-22 and Hispanics who had the lowest proportion of employed job seekers. The large number of both employed and unemployed job seekers suggests extensive job search activity in the youth labor market.



#### CHAPTER 10

## PERCEPTIONS OF DISCRIMINATION AND OTHER BARRIERS TO EMPLOYMENT

Respondents age 16 and over were asked a series of questions about problems they may have encountered "in getting a good job." The questions focused on discrimination (by age, sex, and race) and on structural barriers to employment (e.g., lack of education, experience, or transportation). The percentages of youth indicating that each of these problems had caused them difficulty in getting a good job are shown in Table 10.1, stratified by sex and race jointly (multiple responses were possible).

The most frequently stated problem by far is age discrimination, with almost 45 percent of youth age 16-22 claiming to have been adversely affected. As indicated by the bottom row of Table 10.2, perceptions of age discrimination are strongly related to age, with almost 60 percent of those under age 18 citing age discrimination as a problem compared with 45 percent of those age 18-19 and 31 percent of those age 20-22. It is possible that protective legislation limiting the amount or timing of hours of work for individuals under age 18 restricts the employment opportunities available to such youth. Alternatively, the minimum wage may contribute to the high perceptions of age discrimination by 16 and 17 year olds: if employers obliged to pay the minimum wage are able to attract sufficient numbers of youth ages 18 and over, they are likely to prefer to have these older youth who will generally be more experienced and hence more productive than their counterparts under age 18. In the eyes of those 16 and 17 years old, such behavior may appear as age discrimination. To the extent that this explanation is correct, it suggests that establishment of a



Table 10.1 Percentage of Youth Indicating that Certain Problems Had Caused Them Difficulty in Getting a Good Job, by Sex and Race

Problem		Female			Total		
	Black	Hispanic	White	Black	Hispanic	White	local
Age discrimination	45.7	43.7	46.6	47.0	47.4	41.6	44.5
Sex discrimination	16.6	12.6	13.1	6.7	5.4	4.0	9.1
Race or nationality discrimination	21.8	15.2	3.0	21.0	19.8	4.3	6.9
Lack of transportation	36.8	37.9	30.7	43.3	35.0	25.0	30.0
Lack of experience	13.6	16.8	16.3	10.9	12.9	10.7	13.4
Lack of education	6.7	12.2	6.5	5.7	6.8	4.9	<b>6.</b> 0
Problem with English	4.5	17.6	1.7	5.0	17.4	2.0	3.2

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 16-22 on interview date. (N=25,570,000)



Table 10.2 Percentage of Youth Indicating that Age Discrimination Had Caused them Difficulty in Getting a Good Job, by Age and Selected Characteristics

Characteristics	Age group					
	16-17	18-19	20-22	Total		
Sex and race		1				
Female	1	1		}		
Black	63.6	46.0	30.0	45.7		
Hispanic	63.1	43.8	27.5	43.7		
White	61.6	49.7	30.6	46.6		
55	01.0	75.7	30.0	70.0		
Male	i		i	İ		
Black	60.8	47.5	31.4	47.0		
Hispanic	64.0	45.8	32.0	47.4		
White	53.7	40.7	31.6	41.6		
	1					
Enrollment status				]		
High school dropout	74.4	49.0	32.6	47.7		
High school student	56.6	45.6	20.4	54.1		
College student	*	48.8	31.5	40.0		
Nonenrolled high school		!	•	1		
graduate	*	40.0	30.4	34.0		
T 4 7		İ				
<u>Total</u> JNIVERSE: Civilians age 16-22	<u>58,6</u>	45.4	31.0 25,570,000)	44.5		

 $<sup>\</sup>star$ Insufficient number of sample cases.



special youth minimum wage would reduce youth's perceptions of age discrimination in employment.

Patterns of perceived age discrimination by age, sex, and race are complex (see Table 10.2). In the youngest age group males are less likely to claim that age discrimination has affected them, largely because of the relatively low figure for white males. Among those 18 and 19 white males remain as the low group while white females are most likely to cite age discrimination as a problem. For the oldest group, however, males are slightly more likely to cite age discrimination, and this holds true for each race group. Similarly complex patterns are apparent with regard to school enrollment status. In the youngest age group youth perceive high levels of age discrimination, with nearly three-fourths of school dropouts claiming to have been adversely affected. In both the middle and oldest age groups dropouts and college students are most likely to cite age discrimination as a problem, with high school graduates least likely to do so among those 18 and 19 years old and high school students least likely to do so among 20-22 year olds.

Perceptions of sex discrimination are considerably more circumscribed than those of age discrimination. Nine percent of youth--almost 14 percent of young women and 5 percent of young men--cited sex discrimination as an employment problem (Table 10.3). As youth age, perceived sex discrimination increases for both sexes--from about 11 percent for the youngest females to nearly 15 percent for their older counterparts, and from under 4 percent for



Undoubtedly, such policies would be accompanied by increased youth perceptions of age discrimination in wages.

Table 10.3 Percentage of Youth Indicating that Sex Discrimination Had Caused them Difficulty in Getting a Good Job, by Sex and Selected Characteristics

Characteristic	Female	Male
Age 16-17 18-19 20-22	10.6 15.1 14.7	3.7 3.7 5.9
Enrollment status High school dropout High school student College student Nonenrolled high school graduate	14.7 10.5 17.3 13.9	3.9 3.5 6.7 4.5
Participant in government training? No Yes	12.8 17.7	4.4 5.0
Marital status Never married Married, spouse present Widowed, divorced, separated	13.4 13.3 18.8	4.5 3.7 4.5
lotal	13.6	4.5

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 16-22 on interview date. (N=25,570,000)



males not yet twenty years old to 6 percent for those in their twenties. As indicated in Table 10.1, black females are most likely to say that they have encountered sex discrimination (17 percent), followed by Hispanic and white females (13 percent) and then by black, Hispanic, and white males (7, 5, and 4 percent, respectively). College students are most likely to cite sex discrimination as an employment problem (17 and 7 percent for females and males, respectively), while nigh school students are least likely to do so (11 and 4 percent for females and males, respectively). Nearly 18 percent of female participants in government training programs and almost one in five women who have been widowed, divorced, or separated claim to have been adversely affected by sex discrimination.

Discrimination by race or nationality was felt to have caused employment problems by almost 7 percent of youth overall, representing about 21 percent of blacks, 18 percent of Hispanics, and 4 percent of whites (Table 10.4). Perceptions of race and nationality discrimination increase with age, particularly for blacks: among those aged 20-22 nearly 28 percent of blacks and 21 percent of Hispanics cited race or nationality discrimination as a problem in getting a good job. Nearly one in four minority high school dropouts claimed to have been adversely affected by race or nationality discrimination. For tlacks, there are similar high perceptions of race and nationality discrimination among those who have completed high school, regardless of whether or not they have gone on to college. Among Hispanics, by contrast, both students and high school graduates are less likely than dropouts to cite race or nationality discrimination as a problem. Regional variation in these percentages was negligible for blacks and whites (i.e., among blacks there is no sense of greater discrimination in the South);



Table 10.4 Percentage of Youth Indicating that Race or Nationality Discrimination Had Caused them Difficulty in Getting a Good Job, by Race and Selected Characteristics

Characteristic	Black	Hispanic	White
Age 16-17 18-19 20-22	14.9 21.6 27.5	13.6 17.3 21.1	2.2 3.5 5.1
Enrollment status  High school dropout  High school statent  College stu  Nonenrolled high school graduate	24.7 14.9 25.9 26.6	24.0 13.4 17.6 14.6	4.6 1.9 3.7 5.2
Region Northeast North central South West	18.5 22.7 22.0 20.5	24.0 23.0 9.8 18.0	3.1 3.6 3.5 4.8
Total	21.4	17.5	3.7

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 16-22 on interview date. (N=25,570,000)



while among Hispanics between one-fifth and one-fourth of the respondents from the Northeast and North Central regions reported discrimination compared to fewer than 10 percent from the South. Thus, despite substantial efforts to reduce or eliminate labor market discrimination based on race or nationality a substantial proportion of minority youth on the threshold of their adult working lives feels directly affected by the problem.

With regard to structural barriers to employment, lack of transportation was far and away the most frequently cited problem, mentioned by 30 percent of the respondents. As indicated in Table 10.1, minority youth are more likely to indicate that lack of transportation was a problem in getting a good job. This is particularly true for black males, 43 percent of whom claimed lack of transportation as a barrier to employment. The data in Table 10.5 demonstrate that transportation problems are more severe for younger youth (35 percent), high school dropouts (43 percent), and high school students (33 percent). In addition, 38 percent of participants in government training programs cited lack of transportation as an employment problem. Finally, transportation difficulties affect lower-income youth most heavily: 39 percent of those from households with income under ten thousand dollars encountered transportation problems compared with 25 percent of those from households with income of twenty-five thousand dellars or more. It would appear that amelioration of public transportation systems, including expansion of transportation services provided during the off-peak hours when many youth are available for work, could serve to widen the geographic scope of the labor market as perceived by youth and thereby enhance effective employment opportunities.



Table 10.5 Percentage of Youth Indicating that Lack of Transportation Had Caused them Difficulty in Getting a Good Job, by Selected Characteristics

Characteristic	Percentage
Age 16-17 18-19	34.8
20-22	30.1 25.7
Enrollment status High school dropout	42.8
High school student College student Nonenrolled high school graduate	33.2 24.0 23.1
Participant in government training?	28.6
Yes	37.6
Family income Less than \$10,000 \$10,000 - 24,999	38.7 27.5
\$25,000 or more	24.9

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 16-22 on interview date. (N=25,570,000)



Lack of experience and lack of education were volunteered as causes of problems in getting a good job by 13 percent and 6 percent of respondents, respectively. Interestingly enough, older youth were almost three times as likely to cite lack of experience as a problem than their younger (and presumably less-experienced) counterparts. This may well reflect differences between the two groups in terms of the types of jobs sought: the latter group, most of whom are still enrolled in high school, may search largely for part-time jobs in the service sector for which prior work experience is not necessary; while other youth respondents are more likely to be looking for careers, in which case training and/or work experience in the field in question would be much more important. In any case, enlargement of programs aimed at directly providing youth with opportunities for gaining work experience and adoption of a special youth minimum wage constitute two policy options aimed at providing youth with more work experience or work experience with a greater training component.

Lack of education was cited as a problem in getting a good job by about 6 percent of nonenrolled high school graduates and fewer than 2 percent of those enrolled in high school or college, while over 20 percent of school dropouts volunteered that their lack of education had been an impediment to labor market success. This percentage increases with age, suggesting that as the experience of dropouts in the labor market increases, the constraining effects of low educational attainment become more readily evident. Evidence of this effect is also suggested by the fact that among



While 7 percent of those enrolled in high school report an experience problem, nearly one-fifth of high school graduates report such a problem.

the older respondents (ages 19-22) over one-fifth of those who have begun but not completed high school cite lack of education as a problem while the proportion exceeds one-fourth for those who have dropped out prior to reaching high school. In light of these data it would seem desirable to stress counselling of prospective school dropouts as to the job problems they are likely to face, particularly as they get older.

It should also be noted that language constitutes an important barrier to employment for a significant segment of the Hispanic youth.

More than one in six Hispanic youth cite problems with English, the proportion exceeds one-fifth among the older youth, and is greater than one-third among Hispanic high school dropouts.

Finally, we may note that perceptions of discrimination and barriers to employment generally seem to be related to family income. Specifically, youth from low-income households are more likely to see themselves as being adversely affected by the bulk of the problems discussed in this chapter. To the extent that these perceptions accurately reflect the experiences of low-income youth in the labor market, the desirability of efforts aimed at reducing discrimination and other barriers to employment as a means of promoting equality of opportunity in the labor market is underscored.



#### CHAPTER 11

### WILLINGNESS TO WORK

There has been much discussion recently that ascribes the high and increasing rates of unemployment among black and other minority youth to their reluctance to accept menial employment. To test this hypothesis and to determine more generally youth willingness to work, the 1979 NLS Survey of Youth presented seven types of work to the young people and asked whether they would be willing to accept a full-time job in these occupations at \$2.50, \$3.50, and \$5.00 per hour. Persons who were enrolled in school were asked if they would accept such full-time jobs if offered during the following summer.

## Minority-White Differentials

The primary finding of this analysis is that for the five types of jobs which are often available to youth in the private sector--washing dishes, working in a factory, working as a cleaning person, working at a check-out counter in supermarket, and working at a hamburger place--more black youth were willing to work at \$2.50 an hour, and fewer black youth would not work at \$5.00 an hour than was true of either Hispanic or white youth (see Table 11.1). Further, the Hispanic youth were more willing to work in these jobs at \$2.50 an hour, and fewer needed a wage above \$5.00 an hour to induce them to work in these occupations than was true of the white young people.

See, for example, Elijah Anderson, "Some Obervations of Black Youth Employment" in Youth Employment and Public Policy, Bernard E. Anderson and Isabel V. Sawhill, eds., Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, forthcoming 1980.



Table 11.1 Willingness to Work, by Sex and Race (Percentage distributions)

   Willingness to work	Sex			Total		
,	Female	Male	Black	Hispanic	White	10141
Washing dishes						
Willing to work at \$2.50 per hour	21.2	20.9	33.8	24.4	18.6	21.0
Willing to work at \$3.50 per hour but not at \$2.50 per hour	19.1	20.8	23.3	22.0	19.2	19.9
Willing to work at \$5.00 per hour but not at \$3.50 per hour	21.4	20.9	19.3	18.3	21.7	21.2
Not willing to work at \$5.00 per hour	38.3	37.4	23.6	35.3	40.5	37.9
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Working in a factory				<del> </del> 		
Willing to work at \$2.50 per hour	17.7	22.2	32.4	22.7	17.6	19.9
Willing to work at \$3.50 per hour but not at \$2.50 per hour	24.7	25.4	31.5	30.0	23.5	25.0
Willing to work at \$5.00 per hour but not at \$3.50 per hour	24.0	23.8	19.2	20.3	25.0	23.9
Not willing to work at \$5.00 per hour	<b>3</b> 3.6	28.6	16.9	26.9	33.9	31.1
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100



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Table 11.1 (continued)

Willingness to work	Se	ex				
Willingliess to work	Female	Male	Black	Hispanic	White	Total
Working as a cleaning person						
Willing to work at \$2.50 per hour	20.0	19.7	28.5	20.7	18.3	19.8
Willing to work at \$3.50 per hour but not at \$2.50 per hour	17.8	18.6	22.3	20.6	17.3	18.2
Willing to work at \$5.00 per hour but not at \$3.50 per hour	22.6	21.9	21.2	18.8	22.7	22.3
Not willing to work at \$5.00 per hour	39.5	39.9	28.0	40.0	41.7	39.7
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Working at a check-out counter at a supermarket						
Willing to work at \$2.50 per hour	37.9	29.0	45.2	36.4	31.2	33.4
Willing to work at \$3.50 per hour but not at \$2.50 per hour	غد	22.1	28.5	29.8	25.6	26.3
Willing to work at \$5.00 per hour but not at \$3.50 per hour	15.9	18.4	14.1	15.3	17.9	17.2
Not willing to work at \$5.00 per hour	15.8	30.5	12.2	18.5	25.4	23.1
Total percent	100	00 آ	100	100	100	100



Table 11.1 (continued)

Willingness to work	Se	ex .	Race			Total	
	Female	Male	Black	Hispanic	White	IOLAI	
Working at a hamburger place							
Willing to work at \$2.50 per hour	32.7	29.0	44.3	32.6	28.4	30.8	
Willing to work at \$3.50 per hour but not at \$2.50 per hour	22.0	19.9	25.3	25.1	19.9	21.0	
Willing to work at \$5.00 per hour but not at \$3.50 per hour	15.4	16.4	13.2	13.6	16.5	15.9	
Not willing to work at \$5.00 per hour	30.0	34.7	17.2	28.7	35.2	32.3	
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	
Cleaning up neighborhoods							
Willing to work at \$2.50 per hour	20.7	24.3	22.8	18.3	22.8	22.5	
Willing to work at 93.50 per hour but not at \$2.50 per hour	18.3	19.3	21.1	18.5	18.4	18.8	
Willing to work at \$5 00 per hour but not at \$3.50 per hour	20.4	21.8	22.7	20.9	20.8	21.1	
Not willing to work at \$5.00 per hour	40.6	34.6	33.5	42.3	37.9	37.6	
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	



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Table 11.1 (continued)

Willingness to work	Sex		Race			
	Female	Male	Black	Hispanic	White	Total
Working away from home in a national forest or park						
Willing to work at \$2.50 per hour	35.4	40.4	29.8	29.6	39.9	37.9
Willing to work at \$3.50 per hour but not at \$2.50 per hour	17.3	18.4	19.0	16.7	17.8	17.9
Willing to work at \$5.00 per hour but not at \$3.50 per hour	16.3	20.3	20.9	18.3	17.9	18.3
Not willing to work at \$5.00 per hour	31.0	20.9	30.3	35.4	24.5	26.0
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979. (N=32,880,000)



Moreover, these differences were not due to age, educational attainment, enrollment status, or regional differences between the minority and white youth. Regression analysis holding these factors constant found a statistically significant greater willingness of black youth to take all five of the private sector jobs at each wage rate. For Hispanic youth, the results were somewhat more mixed with greater willingness to take the jobs at the subminimum wage, but usually the differences were not statistically significant.

The implication of this finding is extremely important. It shows that prior research which has relied on case studies and anecdotal information has mistakenly blamed black youth for their higher unemployment rates. In fact, our data show that blacks are more willing to accept jobs at given wages than are their white counterparts. Thus, unless we apply different standards about the types of work that black and white youth ought to be willing to take at a particular wage, we need to search for other causes of high minority unemployment, e.g., discrimination, geographical distance from jobs, etc.

It is of some interest to note that when asked about the two types of work which are parts of the federal government youth employment and training programs—cleaning up neighborhoods, which is one of the major activities of the Youth Conservation and Community Improvement Projects, and working away from home in a natural forest or park, which is an activity in the Young Adult Conservation Corps—somewhat different reactions were found. Approximately identical percentages of blacks and

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>What has occurred is that lacking comparison groups, researchers have concentrated on those individuals who had high reservation wages, and the information gathered about these persons has been generalized.



whites and a somewhat smaller percent of Hispanics would clean up neighborhoods at \$2.50 per hour, although fewer blacks than whites would not take it when offered \$5.00 an hour. (Hispanics, however, would be more reluctant to accept this work at \$5.00 than was true for either blacks or whites.) In terms of going to national parks to work on conservation projects, considerably lower, identical proportions of blacks and Hispanics would be willing to take such work at \$2.50 an hour than would whites; and more of both groups, particularly Hispanics, would have to be paid over \$5.00 an hour to attract them to this type of work. Thus, it appears that at least some of the government job opportunities for youth appear less attractive to blacks and Hispanics than they do to whites.

## Sex Stereotyping

Some sex stereotyping was found in the willingness of the youth to take various jobs (Table 11.1). Somewhat more of the men were willing to take factory jobs, neighborhood clean up jobs and the work in the parks than were women, at each of the wage levels, while women were more willing to take work at the check-out counter and in a hamburger place than were the men. The differences, however, were not overwhelming. Even for work in national forests or parks, where the largest difference was found, only 31 percent of the women would not engage in this work if they were paid \$5.00 an hour as compared to 21 percent of the men. There were no differences between sexes for dishwashing jobs or being a cleaning person.

## Family Income Differences

One might expect somewhat greater willingness of youth from low the come families to take employment at the lower wage rates (i.e., \$2.50 or



\$3.50 per hour). This was true for four of the private sector types of employment. It was not true, however, for working at a hamburger place, cleaning up neighborhoods or working in national forests or parks. In these cases, it would appear that young people from middle income families were equally or more willing to accept the jobs. It should be noted in the case of work in national forests or parks, the most attractive job for youth from high income families, that 37 percent of young people from families with incomes exceeding \$40,000 a year would take these jobs at \$2.50 an hour, and only 27 percent would not take them if offered \$5.00 an hour.

# Differences by Employment Status

In all seven job categories, unemployed youth, 16-21, were more willing to work at \$2.50 an hour than youth classified as out of the labor force (OLF). The latter were, in turn, more willing to work at \$2.50 an hour than currently employed youth. In six of the seven job categories, a larger percentage of unemployed youth were willing to work at \$5.00 an hour than OLF youth, and more OLF youth were willing to work than employed youth. The one exception was working away from home in a national forest or park: here a greater percentage of employed youth were willing to work at \$5.00 an hour than those OLF (Table 11.2).

Most attractive (as shown by the willingness to accept the jobs at \$3.50 per hour) to the unemployed—and indeed to all youth—were jobs at a check—out counter in a supermarket (72 percent). Working at a hamburger place (65 percent) and in a national park (62 percent) were the next most popular choices for those seeking work. Among the employed the same



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Table 11.2 Willingness to Work, by Employment Status
(Percentage distributions)

	Employment status				
Employed	Unemployed	Out of	Total		
		labor force			
9.0	28.4	22.0	15.4		
17.9	27.9	20.3	20.0		
22.8	20.6	22.3	22.4		
50.3	23.1	35.4	42.2		
100	100	100	100		
9.3	28.5	22.1	15.6		
24.9	30.8	25.9	26.0		
26.9	23.4	21.8	24.9		
39.0	17.3	30.1	33.4		
100	100	100	100		
	9.0 17.9 22.8 50.3 100 9.3 24.9 26.9	9.0 28.4  17.9 27.9  22.8 20.6  50.3 23.1 100 100  9.3 28.5  24.9 30.8  26.9 23.4  39.0 17.3	9.0 28.4 22.0  17.9 27.9 20.3  22.8 20.6 22.3  50.3 23.1 35.4 100 100 100  9.3 28.5 22.1  24.9 30.8 25.9  26.9 23.4 21.8 39.0 17.3 30.1		



Table 11.2 (continued)

	Emp1	oyment statu	s	<u> </u>
Willingness to work	Employed	Unemployed	Out of labor force	Total
Working at a hamburger place				
Willing to work at \$2.50 per hour	14.6	35.9	30.3	22.1
Willing to work at \$3.50 per hour but not at \$2.50 per hour	20.0	29.2	21.8	21.8
Willing to work at \$5.00 per hour but not at \$3.50 per hour	19.8	14.5	16.6	18.1
Not willing to work at \$5.00 per hour	45.6	20.4	31.3	38.0
Total percent	100	100	100	100
Cleaning up neighborhoods				
Willing to work at \$2.50 per hour	14.2	27 6	23.6	18.8
Willing to work at \$3.50 per hour but not at \$2.50 per hour	17.2	23.3	19.8	18.8
Willing to work at \$5.00 per hour but not at \$3.50 per hour	22.3	23.2	20.6	21.9
Not willing to work at \$5.00 per hour	46.4	25.8	36.0	40.6
Total percent	100	100	100	100



Table 11.2 (continued)

	Em	1		
Willingness to work	Employed	Unemployed	Out of	Total
			labor force	
Working as a cleaning person				
Willing to work at \$2.50 per hour	10.3	27.0	19.9	15.4
Willing to work at \$3.50 per hour but not at \$2.50 per hour	15.5	23.6	19.3	17.7
Willing to work at \$5.00 per hour but not at \$3.50 per hour	23.5	22.8	22.0	23.0
Not willing to work at \$5.00 per hour	50.7	26.6	38.7	43.9
Total percent	100	100	100	100
Working at a check-out counter at a supermarket				
Willing to work at \$2.50 per hour	18.7	42.1	34.3	26.4
Willing to work at \$3.50 per hour but not at \$2.50 per hour	28.3	30.3	26.2	28.0
Willing to work at \$5.00 per hour but not at \$3.50 per hour	21.0	15.0	17.5	19.2
Not willing to work at \$5.00 per hour	<b>32.</b> 0	12.5	22.0	26.4
Total percent	100	100	100	100



Table 11.2 (continued)

	Employment status				
Willingness to mork	Employed	Unemployed	Out of	Total	
			labor force		
Working away from home in a national forest or park					
Willing to work at \$2.50 per hour	30.8	41.8	39.5	34.8	
Willing to work at \$3.50 per hour but not at \$2.50 per hour	21.6	20.6	15.2	19.6	
Willing to work at \$5.00 per hour but not at \$3.50 per hour	20.9	18.4	15.4	19.0	
Not willing to work at \$5.00 per hour	26.7	19.3	29.9	26.6	
Total percent	100	100	100	100	

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 16-21 on date of interview. (N=24,570,000)



three jobs were preferred, but the order was slightly different: 52 percent would work in a park, 47 percent at a supermarket counter, and 35 percent at a hamburger place. Finally, for those out of the labor force, the order was check-out counter in a supermarket (61 percent), in a national forest or park (55 percent), and at a hamburger place (52 percent).

## Enrollment Status Differences

Predictably, the percentages of youth enrolled in college and of high school graduates not enrolled in regular school willing to accept the various jobs at \$2.50 an hour were generally much lower than those of high school students and high school dropouts. Only for the job working away from home in a national forest or park did the dichotomy blur somewhat. For that job the proportions were 31 percent for high school dropouts, 48 percent for youth enrolled in high school, 31 percent for youth enrolled in college, and 24 percent for high school graduates not enrolled in regular school.

As could be expected, youth enrolled in high school were consistently more willing than high school dropouts to accept the various jobs at \$2.50 an hour. Among youth enrolled in high school, three jobs were very popular at this wage: working at a check-out counter in a supermarket (49 percent), working away from home in a national forest or park (48 percent), and working at a hamburger place (48 percent).

The percentage of youth not willing to accept the various jobs at \$5.00 an hour rose consistently in the following order by enrollment status:

- 1. high school students
- 2. high school dropouts
- 3. college students
- 4. nonenrolled high school graduates



The sole exception was factory work, for which a slightly greater percentage of youth enrolled in high school was unwilling to work for \$5.00 an hour than of high school dropouts (22 percent and 20 percent, respectively).

# Youth Willingness to Work at Subminimum Wages

An interesting policy implication of these data is that large proportions of youth would be willing to accept jobs at amounts below the minimum wage. The offer of work at \$2.50 an hour was approximately 86 percent of the minimum wage at the time of the interview, yet 21 percent of the youth would be willing to wash dishes, 20 percent would be willing to work at this wage in a factory, 20 percent would work as a cleaning person, 33 percent would work at a check-out counter in a supermarket, 23 percent would clean up their neighborhoods, 31 percent would work at a hamburger place, and 38 percent would work away from home in a national forest or park. As one would expect, the willingness to accept subminimum wages was inversely related to age (see Table 11.3). Thus, among 14 and 15 year olds, the proportions were 42 percent, 37 percent, 37 percent, 61 percent, 38 percent, 64 percent, and 51 percent, respectively, for washing dishes, working in a factory, being a cleaning person, working at a check-out counter, cleaning up neighborhoods, working at a hamburger place, and working away from home in a national forest or park. For 18 and 19 year olds, the percentages had declined to 13 percent, 13 percent, 13 percent, 21 percent, 17 percent, 16 percent, and 33 percent, respectively, for these types of work. Still, even for the latter group, there are over one million persons who say that they would be willing to take each of these seven jobs at a wage approximately one-seventh below the minimum wage.



Table 11.3 Willingness to Work, by Age

(Percentage distributions)

Willingness to work	Age   14-15   16-17   18-19   20-22				Total
	14-15	16-17	18-19	20-22	10001
Washing dishes	:				
Willing to work at \$2.50 per hour	42.1	24.2	12.9	8.6	21.0
Willing to work at \$3.50 per hour but not at \$2.50 per hour	21.2	27.2	18.9	13.3	19.9
Willing to work at \$5.00 per hour but not at \$3.50 per hour	17.6	21.8	23.9	20.9	21.2
Not willing to work at \$5.00 per hour	19.1	<b>26.</b> 8	44.3	57.2	37.9
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100
Working in a factory					
Willing to work at \$2.50 per hour	36.9	23.6	13.3	9.1	19.9
Willing to work at \$3.50 per hour but not at \$2.50 per hour	23.5	31.0	27.4	18.8	25.0
Willing to work at \$5.00 per hour but not at \$3.50 per hour	20.0	22.8	27.4	24.8	23.9
Not willing to work at \$5.00 per hour	19.6	22.6	31.9	47.3	31.1
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100
Working as a cleaning person					
Willing to work at \$2.50 per hour	37.0	23.7	12.8	8.9	19.8
Willing to work at \$3.50 per hour but not at \$2.50 per hour	21.2	22.5	17.3	12.6	18.2
Willing to work at \$5.00 per hour but not at \$3.50 per hour	21.2	22.7	24.1	21.0	22.3
Not willing to work at \$5.00 per hour	20.6	31.1	45.8	57.5	39.7
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100



Table 11.3 (continued)

Willingness to work	Age			Total	
William St. Co. Work	14-15	16-17	18-19	20-22	IOLAI
Working at a check-out counter in a supermarket					
Willing to work at \$2.50 per hour	61.0	42.0	21.3	14.5	33.4
Willing to work at \$3.50 per hour but not at \$2.50 per hour	21.4	31.6	30.0	22.0	26.3
Willing to work at \$5.00 per hour but not at \$3.50 per hour	9.5	14.2	21.3	22.4	17.2
Not willing to work at \$5.00 per hour	8.1	12.2	27.4	41.2	23.1
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100
Working at a hamburger place					
Willing to work at \$2.50 per hour	63.9	38.0	16.2	11.1	30.8
Willing to work at \$3.50 per hour but not at \$2.50 per hour	19.5	27.3	22.3	15.2	20.9
Willing to work at \$5.00 per hour but not at \$3.50 per hour	8.5	14.7	20.6	18.6	15.9
Not willing to work at \$5.00 per hour	8.1	20.0	41.0	55.2	32.3
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100
Cleaning up neighborhoods					
Willing to work at \$2.50 per hour	37.6	27.3	16.5	11.5	22.5
Willing to work at \$3.50 per hour but not at \$2.50 per hour	19.6	23.8	18.0	14.4	18.8
Willing to work at \$5.00 per hour but not at \$3.50 per hour	19.5	20.8	23.6	20.3	21.1
Not willing to work at \$5.00 per hour	23.2	28.0	41.9	53.8	37.6
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100



Table 11.3 (continued)

Willingness to work	L	Age			
WITTINGIESS CO WOLK	14-15	16-17	18-19	20-22	Total
Working away from home in a national forest or park				**************************************	
Willing to work at \$2.50 per hour	51.0	46.4	32.7	24.2	37.9
Willing to work at \$3.50 per hour but not at \$2.50 per hour	12.4	19.2	22.0	17.3	17.9
Willing to work at \$5.00 per hour but not at \$3.50 per hour	15.0	15.9	18.6	22.9	18.3
Not willing to work at \$5.00 per hour	21.7	18.6	26.7	<b>3</b> 5. ĉ	<b>26.</b> 0
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979. (N=32,600,000)



#### CHAPTER 12

#### HEALTH STATUS OF YOUTH

Persons not employed during the survey week were asked if health prevented employment. Furthermore, employed youth and youth not prevented by health from working were asked if health limited the kind or amount of work they could perform. A youth responding positively to any of these health-work related inquiries was noted as having a health disability. Overall, 6 percent of the civilian youth sample reported that a health condition either prevented, restricted, or limited the type or amount of work they could do. Among youth who did not have a job during the survey week, approximately 3 percent of the sample stated that a health condition prevented them from working. Among youth not prevented from working by health reasons and employed youth, 4 percent responded that they were limited because of health in the kind of work they could perform. Further, 3 percent of the youth said they were limited by health in the amount of work they could perform.

Not surprisingly, only a small percentage of the youth are affected by poor health because younger populations are generally not likely to have health problems. However, in analyzing the impact of health status on employment by certain characteristics such as marital status, age, and sex some differences were noted. In particular, a clear association between age and the presence of a health limitation was apparent.

### Prevents Employment

Youth without jobs were asked if the presence of a health condition would prevent them from taking employment. Column 1 of Table 12.1 presents



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Table 12.1 Incidence of Health Restrictions, by Selected Characteristics (Percentage distributions)

Characteristic	Health prevents work <sup>a</sup>	Health limits <u>kind</u> of work	Health limits amount of work	Health prevents, limits kind or amount of work
Total	3.1	4.1	2.7	6.2
Age 14-15 16-17 18-19 20-22	1.7 2.3 4.7 5.4	3.2 3.6 4.1 5.3	2.3 2.2 2.8 3.4	5.2 5.3 6.6 7.5
Enrollment status High school dropout High school student College student Nonenrolled high school graduate		6.4 3.1 2.8 5.8	5.0 2.0 1.6 3.6	10.7 4.9 4.4 7.8
Race Black Hispanic White	2.9 2.6 3.2	3.7 3.2 4.2	2.7 2.1 2.7	6.2 5.2 6.3
Sex Female Male	3.7 2.4	4.9 3.2	3.5 2.0	7.6 4.8
Marital status Never married Married Widowed, divorced, separated	2.4 10.8 9.4	3.6 8.3 8.7	2.3 6.4 5.8	5.3 13.5 15.1

<sup>a</sup>UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-22 on interview date who were not employed in week preceding interview. (N=16,300,000)

Civilians age 14-22 on interview date who were not prevented from working by health. (N=32,380,000)

CUNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-22 on interview date. (N=32 8°,000)



the incidence of this health restriction by selected characteristics. Among youth age 14-15, less than 2 percent of those not working noted health as an employment barrier. At the other end of the scale, about 5 percent of youth age 20-22 reported that health prevented them from taking employment. In addition, approximately 4 percent of the females without jobs, as compared to 2 percent of the males, noted that a health problem prevented employment. There was no difference by race among those who said health kept them from working.

Two other major characteristics associated with a higher percentage of persons prevented from taking employment because of health reasons were school enrollment status and marital status. For example, 7 percent of the high school dropouts, in comparison to only 2 percent of those currently enrolled in high school, reported that the presence of a health condition prevented employment. Among high school graduates not enrolled in college, 8 percent reported a health problem. This group is also older, and age was associated with a higher incidence of health restrictions. Two percent of those who had never been married reported that a health condition prevented employment. In comparison, those who were married with a spouse present included the highest proportion of persons reporting a health disability, 11 percent. Among those who were widowed, separated, or divorced, the reported incidence of health problems preventing employment was 9 percent. Once more the interaction of age and marital status appears to influence the high percentage of nonsingle persons with health problems.

# Restricts Type of Work

Those youth not prevented from working because of health reasons or who were employed were asked if health would possibly restrict the type of



work they could perform. Column 2 of Table 12.1 presents the incidence of this health restriction by selected characteristics. For the most part, the health status which limited the kind or type of work was associated with characteristics similar to those which prevented employment. For example, more older youth were restricted in the type or kind of work they could do. Among those age 20-22, about 5 percent noted that health restricted the type of work they could perform in comparison to only 3 percent of the 14 and 15 year olds.

Among the high school dropouts a higher percentage was restricted in type of work: 6 percent versus 3 percent for youth enrolled in high school. Females had a slightly higher percentage reporting a job type restriction because of health as compared to males, 5 versus 3 percent. In terms of marital status, about 8 percent of married youth, spouse present, noted a job type restriction because of health in comparison to 4 percent of youth who had never been married. Among youth who were divorced, separated or widowed, the rate was 9 percent.

### Limits Amount of Work

Youth not prevented from taking employment because of health were also asked if health limited the amount of work they could perform. Column 3 of Table 12.1 presents the incidence of this health restriction by selected characteristics. The proportion of youth with this type of limitation did not vary substantially by race or sex. It did increase with age. Since age influences the presence of health disabilities, the finding of a higher level of disabilities reported among married persons continues. For example, youth who were married with spouse present reported a higher



disability rate than those who were never married: 6 percent for married youth versus 2 percent for never-married youth. Likewise, 5 percent of the older high school dropouts reported that they were limited in the amount of work they could perform in comparison to 2 percent of the younger high school enrolled youth. Among high school graduates not enrolled in college, about 4 percent reported a health disability which reduced work effort.

# Medical Consultation

Among youth who reported that health either prevented employment or restricted the type or amount of work performed, 95 percent stated that they had consulted a physician about their health condition. Table 12.2 presents the proportion who obtained medical consultation. Males and females appeared to have consulted a physician in about the same proportion. However, there were some differences by race; 96 percent of whites and 93 percent of Hispanics but only 90 percent of black youth had sought medical consultation. As for the other characteristics noted in Table 12.2, it appears that the older youth, college enrolled students, and those married have a slightly migher incidence of medical consultation. However, with the exception of race, most of these differences in medical consultation were slight.

# Nature of Health Problem

Youth who had sought medical assistance were asked to list the medical condition by type. These conditions were categorized into three broad categories: accident/injuries, pregnancies and all other medical problems. Table 12.3 presents the distribution of medical conditions. Of the overall health problems noted, 24 percent resulted from accidents or injuries. An



Table 12.2 Percentage of Youth with Health Limitations Who Sought Medical Consultation, by Selected Characteristics

Characteristic	Had medical consultati	on
Overall	94.6	
Age		
14-15	92.8	
16-17	93.6	
18-19	92.5	
20-22	97.9	
Enrollment status		
High school dropout	93.4	
High school student	94.2	
College student	97.0	
Nonenrolled high school graduate	95.1	
Race		
Black	89.7	
Hispanic	92.6	
White	95.5	
Sex	İ	
Female	95.0	
Male	94.0	
Marital status		
Never married	94.0	
Married	96.1	
Widowed, divorced, separated	*	

<sup>\*</sup>Insufficient number of sample cases.

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-22 on interview date who reported a health limitation. (N=2,050,000)



Table 12.3 Type of Medical Condition

(Percentage distribution)

•

Type of medical condition	Percent
Accident/injury	23.9
Pregnancy <sup>a</sup>	17.3
Other <sup>b</sup>	58.7
Total percent	100

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>Pregnancy includes deliveries.

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-22 on interview date who reported a health limitation. (N=2,050,000)



 $<sup>^{\</sup>mbox{\scriptsize b}}\mbox{\scriptsize Other medical conditions are all conditions which are not accident/injury or pregnancy related.}$ 

additional 17 percent of the medical conditions listed concerned pregnancy. In other words, 41 percent of the health disabilities can be partially reduced or prevented. The remaining health disabilities consisted of a much broader range of medical problems and will be examined in later reports.



### CHAPTER 13

### ATTITUDES TOWARD SCHOOL

Teenagers' experiences in school may be prophetic. Those who find school challenging and satisfying may be more inclined to continue their education beyond high school. Those who find school boring and uninteresting, on the other hand, may be more inclined to drop out of school or never go on to college. Thus teenagers' attitudes towards school may indicate, at a relatively early age, how much schooling they are likely to get and, consequently, how successful they will be in the labor market. In addition, attitudes may reflect how well students are doing in school; recently there have been numerous accounts of long-range declines in students' test scores, which may indicate that students are becoming increasingly dissatisfied with school.

Respondents enrolled in grades 1 through 12 were asked a series of questions about their experiences in school. They were also asked how satisfied they were with school. We have examined the responses to these questions, noting overall attitudes and variations among different groups in the population.

In general, students expressed positive attitudes toward school (Table (13.1). The vast majority felt that their school offered good social environment. Most students also felt that their teachers were competent and helpful. Students generally thought that school offered them a good opportunity to think, learn, and receive good counseling. Yet, at the same time, half of the students felt that their classes were boring, a quarter thought that there was a lack of discipline or control, and over one-tenth felt that school was unsafe.



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Table 13.1 Attitudes toward School, by Sex and Race

	Se	<u> </u>	}	Total		
Attitudes toward school <sup>a</sup>	Female	Male	Black	Hispanic	White	
It's easy to make friends at this school.	92.8	95.6	90.0	90.5	95.4	94.3
Most of the teachers are willing to help with per-sonal problems.	78.1	80.5	79.2	78.3	79.4	79.4
Most of my classes are boring.	52.7	52.5	46.8	50.5	53.8	52.5
I don't feel safe at this school.	13.6	9.2	16.9	16.9	9.8	11.3
Most of my teachers really know their subjects well.		92.2	88.1	87.2	91.9	91.0
You can get away with al- most anything at this school.	24.8	24.9	15.5	21.3	27.0	24.8
My school work requires me to think to the best of my ability.		82.3	92.2	87.3	82.4	84,1
At this school, a person has the freedom to learn what interests him or her.	86.6	87.6	85.5	83.5	87.6	87.1
This school offers good job counseling.	78.5	79.2	75.4	79.9	79.4	78.9

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979, who were enrolled in grades 5-12. (N=16,270,000)



 $<sup>^{\</sup>mathrm{a}}\mathrm{Percent}$  who felt the statement was somewhat or very true.

These attitudes varied by sex and race groups, although not greatly. A larger proportion of males than females, and whites more than blacks and Hispanics felt that it was easy to make friends at their schools. Whites were more likely to feel that the classes are boring. A larger percentage of women and minorities felt that their schools were unsafe. Also, more whites than other groups felt that "they can get away with almost anything" at their schools. Finally, whites appeared less challenged by school work than other race groups.

There were also some variations in attitudes by region, highest grade completed and health (Table 13.2), although again the variations were slight. Finally, students were asked how satisfied they were with their schools (Table 13.3). The responses indicate that students are largely satisfied (87 percent were either somewhat or very satisfied), with only slight variations among sex and race groups. A larger proportion of blacks and women were very dissatisfied with school compared to other race and sex groups, but the proportions remained small.

In summary, students generally felt that their schools offered good opportunities, both socially and academically. These attitudes were very consistent among persons of different sex, race, region, level in school, and health. Students were also quite satisfied with their schools.

At this point it is too early to draw any policy implications from these responses. What remains to be seen in subsequent years is whether students who show negative attitudes toward school or who are dissatisfied have a higher tendency to drop out or to discontinue their education beyond high school.



Table 13.2 Attitudes toward School, by Region, Grade Attending, and Health

Attitudos tarrand		Regio	n		Grad		Health	
Attitudes toward school <sup>a</sup>	North- east	North central	South	West	5-9	10-12	Good	Poor
It's easy to make friends at this school.	93.8	94.5	95.4	92.5	93.0	94.8	94.5	88.9
Most of the teachers are willing to help with personal problems.	78.8	81.7	79.6	75.0	80.0	78.7	79.5	75.7
Most of my classes are boring.	56.2	52.5	49.7	54.3	53.5	52.1	52.7	50.1
I don't feel safe at this school.	12.0	9.4	11.9	13.4	14.3	9.6	11.1	15.8
Most of my teachers really know their subjects well.	90.8	91.4	91.0	90.2	91.8	90.7	91.1	87.9
You can get away with almost any-thing at this school.	25.8	26.2	21.2	28.7	18.0	27.9	24.8	25.4
My school work requires me to think to the best of my ability.	83.5	83.3	87.2	81.1	88.6	81.9	84.1	86.6
At this school, a person has the freedom to learn what interests him or her.	86.4	88.7	87.1	: : . 85.0	82.3	89.4	87.2	84.8
This school offers good job counseling.	75.0	82.6	•	77.6			79.1	75.0

 $<sup>^{\</sup>mathbf{a}}$ Percent who felt the statement was somewhat or very true.

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979, who were enrolled in grades 5-12. (N=16,270,000)



Table 13.3 Satisfaction with School, by Sex and Race
(Percentage distributions)

Satisfaction with school	Se	X	L	Race		Total
Satisfaction with school	Female	Male	Black	Hispanic	White	10 641
Very satisfied	41.2	40.1	38.2	41.2	41.0	40.6
Somewhat satisfied	45.5	47.9	47.5	45.8	46.6	46.7
Somewhat dissatisfied	9.5	9.3	9.1	9.0	9.5	9.4
Very dissatisfied	3.8	2.8	5.2	4.1	2.8	3.3
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979, who were enrol in grades 5-12. (N=16,270,000)



### CHAPTER 14

# EDUCATIONAL ASPIRATIONS AND EXPECTATIONS

Schooling is an important determinant of labor market success. Thus individuals' educational aspirations and expectations may be indicative of their chances for future labor market opportunities. Respondents were asked to indicate: (1) the amount of schooling they would like to complete; (2) the amount of schooling they think they will actually complete; and (3) the amount of schooling their closest friend wants to complete. It this chapter we will analyze the responses to these three questions.

A majority (two-thirds) of young people aspire to go to college, with the remainder wishing only to complete high school (Table 14.1). Aspirations do not vary greatly by either sex or race. In particular, minority youth have similar educational aspirations as white youth. Yet, as we will observe in Chapter 17, minority youth are less likely to achieve the level of education to which they aspire.

A more important determinant of educational aspirations is the educational achievement of one's parents. If we break down educational aspirations by the educational attainments of the respondents: fathers, startling differences appear (Table 14.2). For example, children of college-educated fathers are much more likely to aspire to college than children of parents with only a high school education. This difference is especially pronounced in the educational aspirations of respondents whose fathers have graduate training; more than one-half of the respondents in this category also aspire to complete at least some graduate training.

There is a difference between the level of education one <u>expects</u> to complete and the level of education one <u>aspires</u> to complete; in most cases



Table 14.1 Educational Aspirations, by Sex and Race
(Percentage distributions)

Educational aspira-	Se	x		Race		Total
tions (in years)	Female	Male	Black	Hispanic	White	
0-8	0.4	0.6	0.3	1.8	0.4	0.5
9-11	1.2	1.3	1.0	3.6	1.1	1.2
12	33.1	37.0	36.2	35.9	34.7	35.0
13-15	17.0	11.9	11.8	14.5	14.9	14.4
16	33.0	31.4	34.3	30.2	32.0	32.2
17 or more	15.3	17.9	16.3	13.9	16.8	16.6
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100



Table 14.2 Educational Aspirations, by Father's Educational Attainment (Percentage distributions)

		her's edu	ucational	attainment	(in yea	
Educational aspirations (in years)	0-8	9-11	12	13-15	16	17 or more
0-8	1.4	0.5	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0
9-11	2.6	1.6	0.9	0.5	0.4	0.0
12	50.3	48.8	36 4	18.2	9.0	5.4
13-15	13.4	14.8	17.6	18.2	9.3	5.4
16	22.2	25.9	32.0	42.6	54.2	37.1
17 or more	10.0	8.4	13.1	20.6	27.1	52.1
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100



expectations are not as high as aspirations (Table 14.3). Young people with lower aspirations feel they are more likely to complete their desired level of schooling than those with higher aspirations. For example, 86 percent of respondents who aspire to complete high school expect to complete that level, while only 70 percent of respondents who aspire to graduate education expect to complete that level of schooling. The congruence of educational aspirations and expectations is fairly consistent among race and sex groups (Table 14.4). That is, the proportion of young people who expect to complete the level of education to which they aspire or more is fairly uniform, except for some racial differences. Among those who aspire to complete 12 years of school, a smaller proportion of Hispanics expect to complete that level than whites or blacks; similarly a greater proportion of whites than blacks or Hispanics expect to complete 17 or more years of school. Patterns of congruence also vary by family income. In general, a greater proportion of youth in wealthier families expect to complete the level of education to which they aspire than youth in poorer families.

As we might expect, an individual's educational aspirations are also related to the educational goals of his best friend (Table 14.5). For example, three-quarters of those who aspire only to complete high school have friends who also want only to complete high school. Similarly, about half of those who aspire to complete 4 years of college have friends who want to complete the same level of schooling. The correspondence is less pronounced for those who aspire to complete some college (13-15 years of school) or graduate school (17 or more years of school). In these two instances only about one-third of friends have similar educational goals, while over one-third have lower educational goals.



Table 14.3 Educational Expectations, by Educational Aspirations (Percentage distributions)

Educational expectations		Education	nal aspir	ations (in	years)		
(in years)	0-8	9-11	12	13-15	16	17 or	
	-	<del> </del>				more	Total
0-8	89.5	3.7	2.0	0.1	0.2	0.0	1.3
9-11	0.0	83.4	10.7	1.0	0.5	0.3	5.1
12	9.4	9.8	85.5	24.5	13.1	2.9	<b>3</b> 8.3
13-15	0.0	0.5	1.1	73.1	1 <b>7.</b> 0	4.4	17.2
16	1.1	2.6	0.6	1.1	67.9	23.1	26.1
17 or more	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	1.3	69.4	12.0
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100



Table 14.4 Congruence of Educational Aspirations and Expectations, by Sex, Race, and Family Income<sup>a</sup>

		Educational aspi	rations (in yea	rs)
Characteristic	12	13-15	16	17 or more
Sex				
Female	88.2	74.4	67.5	65.9
Male	86.3	74.2	71.1	72.4
Race				
Black	89.2	75.1	66.8	62.2
Hispanic	80.7	76.7	63.1	67.8
White	87.4	74.1	70.1	70.7
Income			!	
\$0 - \$4,999	77.5	75.0	64.0	70.3
\$5,000 - \$9,999	84.3	69.6	59.8	59.2
\$10,000 - \$14,999	84.7	73.5	62.1	65.5
\$15,000 - \$19,999	91.0	78.9	67.7	61.1
\$20,000 - \$24,999	89.1	72.6	71.6	70.0
\$25,000 - \$29,999	92.7	75.4	70.3	67 <b>.</b> 5
\$30,000 - \$39,999	97.3	81.7	76.8	68.6
\$40,000 or more	95.8	76. 1	83.2	77.4
Total	87.2	74.3	69.2	69.4

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>Proportion whose expectations equal or exceed their aspirations.



Table 14.5 Educational Aspirations, by Friend's Educational Aspirations (Percentage distributions)

Friend's educational		educati	onal asp	irations	(in year	·s )	1
aspirations (in years)	0-8	9-11	12	13-15	16	17 or	Total
						more	
0-8	23.8	0.7	0.6	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.3
9-11	9.2	19.9	4.3	0.8	0.9	0.4	2.2
12	62.9	69.8	75.3	37.5	23.4	12.1	42.4
13-15	0.0	2.9	6.3	30.0	9.7	7.6	11.0
16	4.1	6.3	11.7	26.2	58.0	39.4	33.3
17 or more	0.0	0.2	1.8	5.5	8.0	40.3	10.8
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100



These results indicate that young people in general have high educational aspirations regardless of their sex or ethnicity. Educational aspirations are heavily influenced by parents' educational achievements, however. Thus if society wishes to achieve equal educational opportunity, public policy should focus on mediating the influence of family background on educational aspirations. This is not to say that everyone should aspire to the same level of educational achievement, but rather that all children, regardless of family background, should have equal opportunity to achieve success in the labor market and complete the education required to insure that success.



## CHAPTER 15

### **VOCATIONAL EDUCATION STUDENTS**

Students can often choose from several programs in high school: college preparatory, general, or vocational and commercial. While most students concentrate on academic courses, a number of students prepare for a job immediately after high school by enrolling in vocational or commercial programs. These programs receive large state and federal subsidies and are intended to give students job-specific skills. Yet some critics claim that disadvantaged and minority students are channeled into these programs instead of receiving academic training that would prepare them for college. They also question whether vocational training really helps participants find well-paying jobs after they finish school.

In this chapter we will compare students in college preparatory and general programs with students in vocational or commercial programs. Respondents identified their high school programs as one of these four types. We subsequently combined the vocational and commercial categories. One limitation of using mutually-exclusive program areas is that students could follow more than one program. For example, a student could follow a vocational program and take college preparatory courses as well. Self-reported program categories thus fail to indicate the intensity and specific areas studied in high school. Until more complete information becomes available in future surveys, we must limit the analysis to differentiating students by their self-identified program area.

Among students currently enrolled in grades 9 to 12, Table 15.1 shows that roughly half identified Cheir program as general, one-third as college preparatory program, and one-sixth as vocational or commercial. These



Table 15.1 High School Program, by Sex and Race
(Percentage distributions)

Tupo of magnet		Fema 1e		_	Male		7
Type of program	Black	Hispanic	White	Black	Hispanic	White	Total
High school program							
Vocational, commercial	15.8	12.2	14.3	13.5	15.6	15.3	15.0
College preparatory	31.0	30.8	32.1	28.8	29.5	34.5	32.7
General	53.2	57.0	53.6	54.7	54.9	50.1	52.4
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Type of vocational or commercial program							
Agricultural	3.2	0.0	1.5	2.4	4.5	9.2	5.0
Business or office	41.0	73.2	57.7	76.7	21.1	8.7	31.8
Distributive education	14.0	7.2	14.8	11.5	14.3	9.5	12.0
Health	13.1	6.9	5.9	4.3	8.5	0.7	4.0
Home economics	15.7	6.2	3.4	7.3	0.0	1.1	3.5
Trade or industrial	16.2	11.0	10.4	51.1	47.1	65.4	38.3
Other	1.8	1.6	ú.3	6.7	4.6	5.2	5.4
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979, who were enrolled in grades 9-12. (N = 15,110,000)



patterns were similar for all sex and race groups. Of those students who identified their programs as vocational or commercial, most were in business (32 percent) or trade and industrial areas (38 percent). The rest were scattered among the other vocational fields—agriculture, distributive education, health, home economics, and miscellaneous programs. Participation in types of vocational and commercial programs varied considerably by both race and sex. Most females followed a business or office program while most males followed a trade or industrial program. But even these differences varied by race: Hispanic females were nearly twice as likely to follow a business or office program as white females, while white males were more likely to follow a trade or industrial program than either black of Hispanic males. White males were more likely to follow agriculture programs and less likely to follow business or office programs than minority males. These differences illustrate that, even at a relatively early age, career paths begin to vary between young men and women as well as among race groups.

Participation in high school programs also varied by enrollment status and region (Table 15.2). College students were more likely to have followed a college preparatory program while school dropouts were more likely to have followed a general program. Current high school students were more likely to have pllowed a college preparatory program than high school graduates not enrolled in college (33 percent versus 22 percent). Compared to nonenrolled high school graduates, a small percentage of current vocational students were receiving office and business training, and more were enrolled in agriculture, distributive education, and trade or industrial areas.

There were also regional differences in high school programs. Persons residing in the Northeast were more likely to follow a college preparatory program and less likely to follow a general program, while young people in the west were more likely to follow a general program and less likely to



Table 15.2 High School Program, by Enrollment Status and Region (Percentage distributions)

Type of	Enro	llment st	atus		<u> </u>	Regio	ori	
program	High school dropout	High school student	College student	Nonenrolled high school graduate	North- east	North Central	South	West
High school program								
Vocational, commercial	13.2	15.0	8.4	25.0	17.1	18.3	15.3	12.2
College preparatory	7.2	32.7	64.8	21.9	42.3	29.8	30.9	26.8
General	79.6	52.4	26.7	53.2	40.6	51.9	53.8	61.1
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Type of vocational or commercial program								
Agricultural	7.4	5.0	9.4	2.6	3.6	3.9	5.4	7.2
Business, office	30.1	31.8	43.2	42.7	41.8	38.7	33.3	30.4
Distributive education	5.9	12.0	8.6	6.2	5.7	7.9	13.2	6.6
Health	4.1	4.0	7.8	6.7	3.9	5.1	6.4	7.0
Home economics	1.9	3.5	2.2	<b>4.</b> 0	4.9	2.5	3.8	1.9
Trade, industrial	46.4	38.3	23.1	35.1	34.8	39.3	33.7	39.0
Other	4.2	5.4	5.8	2.7	5.3	2.6	4.3	8.0
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

UNIVERSE: Civilians, ages 14-21 on January 1, 1979, who had attended 9th grade or higher. (N = 30.340.000)



follow a vocational or college preparatory program. There were less noticeable regional differences in the types of vocational and commercial programs followed.

Among nonenrolled high school graduates, there were not great differences in employment status by high school program (Table 15.3). The contain unemployment rates were 11, 9, and 11 percent for vocational/commercial college preparatory, and general programs, respectively. With the exception of this panic and white females, vocational students had lower unemployment rates than students who followed a general program. Of course unemployment rates varied considerably among race and sex group, as we saw in Chapter 2. The labor force participation rates were higher for former vocational students than for students in general curricula, except for Hispanic females and black males.

Were vocational students able to find jobs after leaving school? More than half (55 percent) were successful in finding a job in cheir field within 6 months of finishing school (Table 15.4). There were some differences among race and sex groups; over 60 percent of whit males found jobs while only about one-third of black and Hispanic males found jobs; over half of all female graduates found jobs, with Hispanic females being the most successful (64 percent found jobs).

Of those students who found jobs in their fields, less than 10 percent had any problems in securing employment. The major problem in getting a job was insufficient training or experience. For those who did not find a job in their field, about one-quarter said they did not look for a job in their



In particular, Hispanic females show a surprisingly low unemployment rate. But a smaller proportion of Hispanics (males and females) finish high school than either black or whites (Chapter 17). Thus, they may represent rather select groups in the labor market.

Table 15.3 Employment Status of Nonenrolled High School Graduates, by High School Curriculum, Sex, and Race

High school		Female								
curriculum	Black	ack Hispanic White Black Hispanic		White	Total					
	Unemployment rate									
Totai	29.5	6.5	10.6	21.7	11.7	6.1	10.3			
vocational, commercial	23.1	8.1	14.0	10.9	10.5	5 <b>.4</b>	10.6			
College prepare tory	26.8	7.0	6.3	28.2	6.8	6.4	9.2			
Gen <b>e</b> ral	33.7	5.5	10.9	22.1	14.6	6.2	10.6			
		Labor force participation rate								
Total	81.2	77.3	84.4	92.2	88.5	95.6	8.38			
Vocational, commercial	84.1	76.6	84.6	88.7	93.2	98.3	89.8			
College preparatory	86.1	<b>66.</b> 9	91.8	99.1	89.3	94.7	92.1			
G <b>en</b> eral	77.6	82.7	81.1	90.0	86.0	94.7	86.9			

UNIVERSE: Civilians, ages 14-21 on January 1, 1979, who were nonenrolled high school graduates. (N = 7,380,000)



Table 15.4 Job Search Experience of Former Vocational-Commercial Students, by Sex and Race

(Percentage distributions)

Job search		Fema le					
experience	Black	Hispanic	White	Black	Hispanic	White	Total
Whether found job within 6 months after school							
Yes	51.4	64.5	50.9	39.1	37.3	63.5	55.3
No	48.6	35.5	<b>4</b> 9. <b>1</b>	60.9	62.7	3 <b>6.</b> 5	44.7
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Whether had prob- leas finding a job <sup>a</sup>							
Yes	16.5	11.8	12.5	9.1	26.6	4.9	9.5
No	83.5	88.2	87.5	90.9	73.4	95 <b>.1</b>	90.5
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

 $<sup>^{\</sup>rm a}{\rm Respondents}$  who answered that they found a job within six months after leaving school.

UNIVERSE: Civilians, ages 14-21 on January 1, 1979, who were nonenrolled high school graduates and who followed a vocational or commercial program in high school. (N=1,850,000)



field (Table 15.5). Others (20 percent) said they couldn't find a job in their field. Some (14 percent) students failed to find a job because they went on for additional schooling; still others (16 percent) indicated they had insufficient training or experience. The remainder cited a variety of reasons, including preference for a job in another field and failure to finish their program of training.

Do vocational students receive higher hourly earnings as a result of their specialized training compared to students who follow a general or college preparatory program? Again, without information on the intensity of vocational studies in high school and the ability to differentiate casual vocational students from those who complete programs, it is difficult to answer such a question. If we examine the hourly earnings of nonenrolled high school graduates, we observe that some vocational students do earn more than nonvocational students and others do not (Table 15.6). Overall, there are not great differences in the hourly earnings of students from these various programs; they range from a low of \$4.15 per hour for college preparatory students to a high of \$4.21 per hour for young people who rollowed a  $g_{\pi}neral$ program. White males in vocational programs earned less than their counterparts in general programs. Among other groups, on the other hand, former vocational students earned more than their counterparts in general programs. In most cases the differences were not substantial, but for black females and Hispanic males they were, in the latter case, more than a dollar per hour. Other differences appear if we examine the earning of former students who studied specific vocational or commercial programs and those students who



<sup>2</sup>The table is restricted to respondents from who the calculated hourly rate of pay is at least \$.25 and does not exceed \$10.00.

Table 15.5 Principle Reason for Not Finding Job within Six Months of Leaving School for Former Vocational-Commercial Students

# (Percentage distribution)

Reason	Percent
Couldn't find job in this field	20.5
Didn't look for job in this field	25.4
Preferred job in different field	10.1
Went on for additional schooling	13.5
Didn't finish program	3.0
Insufficient training or experience	15.9
Health problems	1.5
Other	10.0
Total percent	100

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979, who were nonenrolled high school graduates, who followed a vocational or commercial program in high school, and who did not find a job within six months after leaving school. (N = 830,000)



Table 15.6 Hourly Rate of Pay and Usual Hours Worked Per Week for Nonenrolled, Employed High School Graduates, by High School Curriculum, by Sex and Race

High school		Female						
curriculum	Black	Hispanic	White	Black	Hispanic	White	Total	
	Hourly rate of p			pay (in	pay (in dollars)			
Total	3.53	3.63	3.66	4.28	4.38	<b>4.</b> 79	4.18	
Vocational, commerical	4.03	3.61	3.71	4.68	5.32	<b>4.</b> 59	4.15	
Those who found a job in their field <sup>a</sup>	3.85	3.89	3.65	5.15	5.39	4.28	4.00	
Business or office job <sup>b</sup>	4.30	3.76	3.59	3.00	*	6.36	3.77	
Trade or in- dustrial job <sup>b</sup>	3.81	*	4 <b>.4</b> 8	4.61	5.78	4.55	<b>4.</b> 58	
College preparatory	3.36	3.87	3.81	4.03	4.05	4.74	4.15	
General	3.36	3.56	3.51	4.36	4.03	4.93	4.21	
		Usual	hours w	orke <b>d</b> n	er week			
Total	36.5	35.7	36.1	39.5	40.3	<b>42</b> .9	39.3	
Vocational, commercial	36.5	34.2	36.3	38.3	41.0	44.8	40.0	
College preparatory	36.9	37.9	34.9	40.8	39.7	41.4	37.9	
General	36.2	35.4	36.6	40.0	<b>4</b> 0.5	<b>4</b> 2.6	39.5	

UNIVERSE: Civilians, ages 14-21 on January 1, 1979, who were employed, non-enrolled high school graduates, and for whom the calculated hourly rate of pay is at least \$.25 and does not exceed \$10.00. (N = 5.850,000)

\*Insufficient number of sample cases.



aFormer vocational/commercial students who found a job in their field.
Former vocational/commercial students who followed the indicated program.

found a job in the field they studied in high school. For minority women and white males in business or office areas and Hispanic men in trade or industrial reas, the rewards to vocational and commercial training are quite significant. Similarly, minority vocational students (except black females) who found jobs in related fields exhibit higher hourly earnings than their counterparts from general program areas. Overall, these patterns are inconsistent among race and sex groups. Finally, there are few differences in the number of hours usually worked per week among workers from the various program areas.

There are several policy implications that arise from these findings. First, further attempts need to be directed toward encouraging female vocational students to enroll in "nontraditional" areas, such as trade or industrial programs. Policies should also be directed toward improving job placement functions in schools so that more vocational students are able to find jobs in their fields of study. Because some vocational students claim they had insufficient training and experience to get a job, the content of some vocational programs may also have to be improved. Finally, although the results are tentative (without controlling for ability or other individual differences), it appears that some vocational program areas yield higher earnings in the labor market than other areas. While earnings are only one measure of the rewards from work, these findings do suggest that some program areas may be more lucrative than others. Consequently, enrollments in some vocational areas should perhaps be expanded at the expense of other areas. Further research needs to be undertaken first, however, in order to better document variations in the returns to vocational training.



### CHAPTER 16

## HIGH SCHOOL DROPOUTS

Young people who fail to complete high school face a bleak future. They have prematurely severed the most likely avenue to labor market success--education. While retention rates in high school have generally increased through this century, recent accounts indicate that dropping out is becoming more widespread. This chapter focuses on high school dropouts. Who are they? Why do they drop out of school? How do they fare in the labor market? Is this problem more widespread among blacks and Hispanic youth than whites, among young men more than young women?

The dropout problem is extensive. Of the nearly 33 million civilian youth 14 to 22 years old, about 13 percent of 4 million are high school dropouts (Table 16.1). This percentage increases to 19 percent for the 18 to 22 year olds. Dropout rates vary considerably by race; for example, young Hispanics exhibit twice the dropout rate as young whites, and blacks 50 percent more than whites. In fact, almost one-quarter of Hispanic youth (males and females) are high school dropouts in the 14 to 22 year old age group compared to one-sixth of black youth and one-tenth of white youth. In the 18 to 22 year old age group, Hispanic dropout rates approach 40 percent. Thus not only are there large numbers of dropouts among young people generally, but young blacks and particularly young Hispanics are more likely to drop out of high school than young whites.



For clarification, dropouts are defined as young people who were not enrolled at the time of the Youth Survey and who had completed less than 12 years of school. Respondents interviewed after May 1, 1979 who were not enrolled in school, but who left school after March were counted as enrolled.

Table 16.1 Enrollment Status, by Sex, Race, and Age
(Percentage distributions)

Age and enrollment		Female			Male		Total
status	Black	Hispanic	White	Black	Hispanic	White	1
14-22 yrs old							
High school dropout	15.5	24.7	11.6	18.4	22.9	11.3	13.0
High school student	50.5	47.3	<b>46.</b> 8	56.5	5 <b>3</b> .5	50.8	49.5
Colleg <b>e</b> student	1 <b>3.</b> 0	11.1	15.6	9.3	10.1	16.4	15.0
Nonenrolled high school graduate	21.0	16.9	26.1	15.8	1 <b>3.</b> 5	21.5	22.5
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
18-22 yrs old							
High school dropout	24.1	38.3	16.0	<b>3</b> 0.6	36.7	16.4	19.0
High school student	14.2	9.7	7.1	18.9	15. <b>4</b>	11.6	10.5
College student	23.7	20.6	28.8	18.8	20.2	31.1	28.2
Nomenrolled high school graduate	<b>3</b> 8.1	31.4	<b>4</b> 3.2	31.8	27.7	<b>4</b> 0.9	<b>4</b> 2.4
Total percent	100	100	100	100	106	100	100



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Table 16.2 Enrollment Status, by Father's Educational Attainment (Percentage distributions)

Enrollment Status		Father's educational attainment (in years)						
	0 <b>-</b> 8	9-11	12	13-15	16	17 or		
			<u> </u>			more		
High school dropout	25.1	17.6	8.7	5.2	2.7	1.7	11.5	
High school student	44.2	49.3	50.7	54.4	50.7	48.4	49.5	
College student	8.7	7.5	13.3	19.7	29.2	39.0	15.9	
Nonenrolled high school graduate	22.0	25.6	27.3	20.7	17.4	10.9	23.0	
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	



Family background is an important influence on a young person's desire and ability to remain in school. Using father's education as a measure of family socioeconomic level, we observe that there is a relationship between family background and the propensity to drop out of high school (Table 16.2). The differences are staggering. Children of fathers with some secondary schooling (9-11 years) are more than twice as likely to drop out of school than children of high school graduates; children of fathers with an elementary education (0 to 8 years) are more than three times as likely to drop out of school than children of high school graduates.

Dropouts cite a number of reasons for leaving school (Table 16.3).

Marriage and pregnancy are the most often cited reasons for dropping out of school among females, especially black females. Over one-quarter of young dropouts, especially males, leave because they do not like school. Forty percent of Hispanic males drop out for economic reasons—home responsibilities, offered a good job, or financial difficulties. Economic reasons are often cited by black and white males as well. Other reasons for leaving school include a lack of ability, poor grades, and expulsions or suspensions.

The labor market opportunities of dropouts are poor. Among 18 to 22 year olds who are not enrolled in school, dropouts have an unemployment rate almost three times as high as high school graduates (Table 16.4); over one-quarter of the dropouts in this age group are unemployed compared to 10 percent of the high school graduates. And these differences are even greater for some sex and race groups. While the unemployment rates of females are generally higher than males, and the unemployment rates of blacks and Hispanics are higher than whites, the patterns remain the same—dropouts have higher unemployment rates than high school graduates, ranging



Table 16.3 Reason for Leaving School, by Sex and Race (Percentage distributions)

Reason for leaving school		Female			Male				
	Black	Hispanic	White	Black	Hispanic	White			
Received degree, completed course work	2.8	1.4	5.9	3.8	6.6	2.3	3.9		
Getting married	4.2	16.1	17.1	1.0	2.0	2.3	8.2		
Pregnancy	40.4	16.8	14.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	9.7		
Other reasons didn't like school	14.7	13.8	23.3	28.9	24.2	37.4	27.5		
Lack of ability, poor grades	4.6	1.4	5.5	8.1	2.6	8.5	6.3		
Home responsi- bilities	9.7	5.6	5.9	4.2	11.3	3.2	5.4		
Offered good job, chose to work	3.9	7.4	6.3	13.5	18.9	14.9	10.6		
Financial diffi- culties, couldn't afford to attend	2.3	9.8	3.2	7.5	10.7	4.4	4.8		
Entered military	0.0	0.0	0.1	1.5	2.5	1.6	0.9		
Expelled or suspended	4.8	0.9	1.1	13.5	6.0	10.4	6.2		
School too dangerous	0.9	0.5	1.5	0.4	0.0	0.5	0.8		
Moved away from school	0.0	6.2	3.6	2.1	3.0	2.2	2.8		
0ther	11.7	20.3	11.8	15.4	12.2	12.1	12.8		
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100		

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 18-22 on interview date who were not enrolled in school and completed less than 12 years of school. (N = 3,290,000)



Table 16.4 Employment Status, by Sex, Race, and High School Completion Status

High school completion	Female				MaTe				
status	Black	Hispanic	White	Black	Hispanic	White			
		Unemployment rate							
Total	40.3	18.7	15.2	24.1	15.0	10.2	15.2		
High school graduates	30.6	7.0	10.9	20.9	11.2	6.2	10.5		
Dropouts	68.0	35.5	32.1	27.7	17.9	20.4	27.8		
		Lat	or force	participa	tion rate				
Total	67.9	59.5	79.4	87.6	87.6	94.8	84.3		
High school graduates	81.4	77.7	84.3	92.7	87.8	95.7	88.8		
Dropouts	46.2	44.5	64.7	82.3	87.5	92.4	74.3		

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 18-22 on interview date were not enrolled in school. (N = 10,580,000)



Labor force participation rates do not vary so greatly, however. For males the rates are very similar, while for temales, dropouts exhibit lower labor force participation rates than the school graduates. This may be because a number of young women drop out of school to get married or to have a child.

Among those youth who are employed, dropouts have lower hourly earnings than high school graduates not enrolled in school (Table 16.5). Dropouts earn about \$.36 an hour less than high school graduates. These differences are consistent among sex and race groups. Overall the number of hours usually worked by dropouts and graduates are similar. Among some race and sex groups, however, dropouts work more hours per week (Hispanic males and females) while among others they work less. There are also differences in the characteristics of jobs held by dropouts and graduates (Table 16.6). Although the differences are not great, graduates consistently rate their jobs as having more opportunities and better characteristics than dropouts. Compared to dropouts, high school graduates, for example, are more likely to have a job with varied tasks, to have the opportunity to learn new job skills, and to do a job from beginning to end. Thus not only do dropouts have a harder time finding employment, they also earn less and have less



As we observed in the previous chapter, the unemployment rate of Hispanic females who graduate from high school compares with that of white males. But again a smaller proportion of Hispanic females finish high school so that those who do may be particularly able and therefore employable.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>The table is restricted to respondents for whom the calculated hourly rate of pay is at least \$.25 and does not exceed \$10.00.

Table 16.5 Hourly Rate of Pay and Usual Hours Worked per Week, by Race, Sex, and High School Completion Status

		Female		L	Male					
Characteristic	Black	<u> Hispanic</u>	White	Black	Hispanic	White				
		Hourly rate of pay (in dollars)								
Total	3.43	3.52	3.56	3.99	4.23	4.67	4.09			
High school graduates	3.52	<b>3.</b> 63	3.64	4.28	4.40	4.79	4.17			
Dropouts	2.78	3.32	3.15	3.62	4.11	4.30	3.81			
		Us	ual hours	worked	per week					
Total	36.2	<b>37.</b> 0	35.9	38.3	40.6	42.5	39.2			
High school graduates	36.5	35.6	36.1	39.5	40.3	42.9	39.3			
Dropouts	34.2	39.7	35.0	36.8	40.9	41.2	38.7			

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 18-22 on interview date who were employed and not enrolled in school, and for whom the calculated hourly rate of pay is at least \$0.25 and does not exceed \$10.00. (N = 6,730,000)



Table 16.6 Job Characteristics, by High School Completion Status

Characteristics	Nonenrolled high school graduates	High school dropouts
Opportunities provided by job <sup>a</sup>		
To do a number of different things	74.6	57.3
To deal with people	83.4	72.9
For independent thought or action	73.4	65.3
To develop close friendships in your job	81.2	<b>74.</b> 8
To do a job from beginning to end	88.3	79.4
To feel that the job itself is very signi- ficant or important in the broader scheme of things	76.8	67.7
To know whether or not you are performing your job well or poorly	90.6	84.8
Characteristics of job <sup>b</sup>		
You are given a chance to do the things you do best	75.1	71.9
The physical surroundings are pleasant	78.6	74.8
The skills you are learning would be valuable in getting a better job	76.1	64.4
The job is dangerous	33.3	41.6
You are exposed to unhealthy conditions	24.3	30.1
The pay is good	73.8	68.5
The job security is good	82.8	74.8
Your co-workers are friendly	96.4	95.5
Your supervisor is competent in doing the job	90.6	86.5
The chances for promotion are good	62.5	61.5

 $<sup>^{\</sup>mathrm{a}}\mathrm{Proportion}$  who felt the job gave a moderate amount, quite a lot or a maximum



bProportion who felt the statement was very or somewhat true.
UNIVERSE: Civilians age 18-22 on interview date who were employed and not enrolled in school. (N = 7,560,000)

desirable jobs once they secure employment compared to young people who finish high school.

School dropouts are an important public concern. By prematurely ending their education, they have greatly reduced their chances for finding a meaningful and rewarding job. Those who fail to find work will undoubtedly place a burden on public assistance programs. Thus society has a stake in the welfare of young people who, for a variety of reasons, fail to finish high school. Efforts at the local, state, and federal level must be undertaken to address this problem. Although we cannot explore all the possible policies that might be pursued, a few are worth mentioning. The most obvious focus should be to try to keep young people in school until they receive their high school diplomas. Granted there are many factors affecting a student's propensity to drop out of school, some of which are beyond the reach of public policy. But some are within reach. Efforts can be directed toward making school more interesting and rewarding to students, and helping those students who are having academic and personal difficulties. Better counseling services may help address some of these problems as well as help students realize the importance of finishing school. Schooling arrangements should also be more flexible to accommodate students who want to or feel they have to work instead of going to school. Cooperative workstudy programs and vocational training could help some students see more relevance to their training in school and perhaps supply needed income from a related job at the same time. Young women who leave school because of pregnancy should have the opportunity to continue their education, through special programs if necessary.



Policies should also be directed at encouraging and facilitating the return of dropouts to school. Adult education classes and high school equivalency examinations provide a way for dropouts to continue their schooling and receive a diploma. Such programs should be expanded, especially in areas where few exist.



### CHAPTER 17

#### COLLEGE STUDENTS

College benefits both individuals and society at large. Individuals go to college in order to increase their chances of finding meaningful and rewarding jobs. College graduates benefit society as well, by supplying the skilled labor necessary to insure the continued growth of the economy. In addition, social policy promotes equality of opportunity through education, in part by providing financial assistance to minority and disadvantaged students in college. Thus both individuals and policy makers have an interest in college participation.

The Youth Survey enables us to answer a variety of questions about college students and their experiences at school: How do college participation rates vary be members of different sex and race groups? Does family background influence college participation? What do students study in college? What types of schools do college students attend? Do most college students attend full-time or part-time? And how do they finance their college education? We will explore the answers to these questions in this chapter. I

Not everyone goes to college. Among 18 to 22 years olds, about one-quarter were enrolled in college (Table 17.1). Many young people in this age group were ineligible to attend college, either because they were high school dropouts or still enrolled in high school. This problem is especially acute for Hispanic and black youth. For example, among 18 to 22 years olds,



In our discussions, college students are defined as young people under the age of 23 who had graduated from high school and were enrolled in college at the time of the 1979 Youth Survey (spring).

Table 17.1 Enrollment Status, by Sex, Race, and Age
(Percentage distributions)

	S	ex		Race		
Age and enrollment status	Female	Male	Black	Hispanic	White	Total
18 to 22 years old						
High school dropout	18.5	19.4	27.1	37.6	16.2	19.0
High school student	8.3	12.8	16.4	12.4	9.3	10.5
College student	27.5	28.9	21.4	20.4	29.9	28.2
Nonenrolled high school graduate	45.7	38.9	35.2	29.7	44.5	42.4
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
18 to 19 years old						
High school dropout	19.8	20.4	25.8.	37.3	17.8	20.1
High school student	16.4	24.9	30.9	24.2	18.5	20.6
College student	30.3	25.3	19.2	17.7	30.1	27.8
Nonenrolled high school graduate	33.5	29.4	24.0	20.8	33.6	31.5
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
20 to 22 years old			: •			
High school dropout	17.3	18.5	28.3	37.8	14.8	17.9
High school student	0.7	1.7	2.0	1.4	1.1	1.2
College student	25.0	32.1	23.5	22.9	29.7	28.5
Nonenrolled high school graduate	56.9	47.7	46.2	37.9	54.5	52.4
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 18-22 on interview date. (N=17,370,000)



about 38 percent of Hispanics and 27 percent of blacks were dropouts compared to 16 percent of whites.

And more blacks and Hispanics were still enrolled in high school, especially among 18 and 19 year olds. Among high school graduates, college participation rates did not vary greatly by sex or race (Table 17.2). A somewhat higher proportion of males than females were enrolled, and slightly higher proportions of whites and Hispanics than blacks were enrolled. Participation rates were also higher for 18 and 19 year olds than for those ages 20 and 21.

Family background, as measured by father's education, affected college attendance significantly, however. Children of fathers with a college degree (4 years of college) were nearly twice as likely to be attending college as children of fathers with a high school diploma. Children of fathers with professional degrees show even higher rates of attendance. These figures confirm a popular notion that family background is an important influence on college attendance.

Fields of study varied among college students generally (Table 17.3). They also varied by sex and race. Although there have been recent attempts to attract women to "nontraditional" areas, over one-quarter of women students were still in the traditional areas of education and health professions. A large proportion of women also were in business fields. On the other hand, women were less likely than men to study engineering and physical sciences. There were also racial differences in fields of study. A higher percentage (about one-third) of blacks were in business fields. A larger proportion of whites, on the other hand, were studying engineering, the humanities, and the physical sciences.



Table 17.2 College Enrollment Status, by Selected Characteristics

(Percentage distributions)

Characteristic	Enrolled	Not enrolled	Total percent
Total	40.0	60.0	100
Sex Female Male	37.7 42.6	62.3 57.4	100 100
Race Black Hispanic White	37.8 41.0 40.2	62.2 59.0 59.8	100 100 100
Age 18-19 <sup>a</sup> 20-22	46.9 35.2	53.1 64.8	100 100
Father's education 0-8 years 9-11 years 12 years 13-15 years 16 years 17 years or more	28.2 22.7 32.8 48.8 62.6 78.1	71.8 77.3 67.2 51.2 37.4 21.9	100 100 100 100 100 100

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-22 on interview date who had completed 12 years of schooling. (N=12,330,000)



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>Excludes a small number of 14-17 year olds.

Table 17.3 Field of College Study, by Sex and Race (Percentage distributions)

5: 11 6 11	Sex			Race		
Field of college study	Female	Male	Black	Hispanic	White	Total
Education	15.5	6.1	12.4	9.2	10.7	10.8
Engineering	1.3	12.2	4.7	5.1	7. 1	6.8
Business	21.0	24.9	30.7	20.2	22.2	22.9
Social science	12.4	9.3	12.5	12.3	10.6	10.8
Physical science	10.3	17.0	10.8	13.3	14.1	13.7
Humanities and liberal arts	9.8	9.1	5.1	8.9	10.0	9.5
Fine and applied arts	6.2	6.0	5.8	4.9	6.2	6.1
Health professionals	13.3	2.3	10.8	9.1	7.3	7.7
Others	10.1	13.2	7.3	<b>17.</b> 0	11.9	11.7
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979, who were enrolled in college. (N=4,930,000)



About two-thirds of college students were attending four-year institutions (Table 17.4). There were some race and sex differences in the kind of schools attended. Men were more likely to be attending four-year colleges than women; whites and blacks were more likely to be attending four-year schools than Hispanics. Because many two-year schools have lower tuition levels than four-year schools, there were similar differences in the tuition of the schools attended by members of these groups; the average college tuition of men was higher than the tuition of women, and the tuition paid by whites was higher than for other racial groups. Finally, the vast majority of youth were attending school full-time.

College participation is influenced by the availability of financial support. Students availed themselves of a variety of financial aid services; about one-fifth were using loans and between one-fifth and one-quarter received grants or scholarships (Table 17.5). Other forms of financial aid were less important. The other major source of financial assistance was friends or relatives; about two-thirds of college students received some financial assistance from friends or relatives—more than one-quarter had all of their schooling and living expenses paid for, while another one-quarter had half or more of their expenses paid for. There are some variations in these figures by race and sex; for example, blacks and Hispanics received grants much more frequently than whites (65 and 40 percent versus 19 percent); whites were much more likely to receive financial assistance from friends and relatives than blacks or Hispanics (74 percent versus 49 and 59 percent); and women had all schooling and living expenses paid for more often than men (30 percent versus 24 percent).



Table 17.4 Type of College, Tuition, and Attendance Status, by Sex and Race (Percentage distributions)

School	Se	X		Total		
characteristic	Female	Male	Black	Hispanic	White	Total
Type of school 2 Year 4 Year Total percent	31.7 68.3 100	24.5 75.6 100	29.4 70.6 100	43.4 56.6 100	27.1 72.9 100	28.0 72.0 100
Tuition (in dollars)	1,440	1,651	1,308	1,099	1,600	1,548
Attendance status Full-time Part-time Total percent	89.3 10.7 100	89.6 10.4 100	88.1 11.9 100	81.5 18.5 100	90.0 10.0 100	89.4 10.6 100

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979, who were enrolled in college. (N=4,930,000)



Table 17.5 College Financial Aid Received, by Sex and Race<sup>a</sup>

Type of financial aid	Se	×		T-4-1		
	Female	Male	B1ack	Hispanic	White	Total
Loan	23.5	21.5	30.1	24.4	21.5	22.5
Scholarship	19.6	19.3	19.6	16.9	19.5	19.2
Grant	28.7	20.1	64.8	40.2	18.8	24.1
Fellowship	0.4	0.2	1.1	1.2	0.1	0.3
Assistantship	1.8	0.9	3.5	0.0	1.2	1.3
Tuition waiver	3.0	2.3	1.2	5.2	2.7	2.6
Veteran's educational benefit	1.5	2.6	2.4	2.5	2.0	2.0
Military educational assistance	0.1	0.9	0.5	0.0	0.5	0.5
Other forms of financial aid	5.7	9.1	8.1	5.0	7.4	. 7.3
Relatives or friends All schooling and living expenses Half or more Less than half	69.5 30.2 25.5 13.8	71.5 23.9 30.0 17.6	48.9 15.2 16.3 17.4	59.0 19.6 21.4 18.0	73.6 28.8 29.4 15.4	70.5 27.1 27.8 15.6

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>Proportion receiving each type of financial aid.

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979 who were enrolled in college. (N=4,930,000)



What do these results imply about government education policy? First, among high school graduates, college participation rates are quite similar for all race and sex groups. However, many minorities are ineligible to attend college because they fail to finish high school. And children from disadvantaged backgrounds, as measured by the amount of education completed by the father of the household, are much less likely to go to college, regardless of race or sex. Consequently, attempts need to be undertaken to compensate for the influence of family background if equality of educational opportunity is to become a reality. Further attention should also be directed at increasing participation of women and minorities in "nontraditional" program areas, such as engineering and physical sciences--fields of study that often lead to good jobs after college. Finally, although many minority students receive financial aid, they are also less likely than white students to receive financial assistance from their parents. Therefore further government assistance may be warranted to overcome the deficit in parental assistance.



### CHAPTER 18

## FIRST JOB AFTER LEAVING SCHOOL

The first job a person gets after finishing school may be telling. Some initial jobs provide valuable experience that can be used to advance on career ladders; others provide little experience that is relevant for better, more rewarding jobs. Thus first jobs may be indicative of future career opportunities. In this chapter we will examine the first jobs that young people acquire after leaving school. These jobs are defined as the first job held for more than 2 months that required 20 hours or more per week. Of the approximately 33 million youth 14 to 21 years of age, about 9 million had a first job that fulfilled these criteria.

About one-quarter of the first jobs were service related, onefifth were clerical jobs, one-fifth were operative jobs, and the
remainder were scattered among the other seven major occupation groups
(Table 18.1). These patterns varied greatly by sex and somewhat by
race. Among young women, two-thirds had first jobs in either the
clerical or service areas. Young men were more evenly distributed
among craft, operative, nonfarm labor, and service occupations. These
patterns were similar for all race groups, except that black males
were more concentrated in service jobs and about 1 percent of the
Hispanic males were first employed as farm workers.

First jobs were also concentrated in certain industries (Table 18.2). Two-fifths of the first jobs were in wholesale and retail trades, one-fifth were in manufacturing, and the remainder were distributed among



Table 18.1 Major Occupation Group of First Job Out of School, by Sex and Race (Percentage distributions)

		Female			Male		
Occupation	Black	Hispanic	White	Black	Hispanic	White	Total
Professional, technical	0.5	1.3	3.1	1.4	2.0	1.4	2.1
Managers, administrators	1.4	1.4	1.8	1.1	3.1	2.9	2.2
Sales	4.1	7.5	7.5	1.3	4.5	3.6	5.3
Clerical	35.5	35.8	36.0	5.7	2.8	4.2	20.0
Crafts	0.4	1.4	0.8	13.1	15.3	20.7	10.1
Cperatives	19.9	15.5	11.7	22.9	26.1	27.6	19.9
Laborers, except farm	2.5	1.9	2.8	20.4	19.7	20.8	11.8
Fana workers	1.0	6.4	1.3	3, 6	11.3	4.1	3.0
Service workers	34.7	28.7	34.9	30.4	15.3	14.3	25.4
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979 who were not enrolled in school and who held a job for at least 2 months at 20 hours or more per week since leaving school. (N = 8.710,000)



Table 18.2 Major Industry Group of First Job Out of School, by Sex and Race (Percentage distributions)

	Female Male						
Industry	Black	Hispanic	White	Black	Hispanic	White	Total
Agriculture, forestry, fisheries	1.5	6.4	1.4	6.5	14.8	6.4	4.3
Mining	0.0	0.5	0.2	0.0	1.0	0.4	0.3
Construction	0.3	0.5	1.1	10.5	7.9	13.7	7.0
Manufacturing	16.2	17.0	14.1	22.8	25.5	22.0	18.4
Transportation, communication, and utilities	4.7	0.9	1.8	3.4	1.9	4.2	3.0
Wholesale and retail trade	30.3	<b>33.</b> 5	47.4	28,2	28.9	37.5	40.3
Finance, insurance and real estate	10.4	12.4	7.5	3.4	0.9	0.9	4.6
Business and repair services	2.2	2.1	2.7	5.4	8.3	6.1	4.4
Personal services	10.6	6.8	4.5	4.8	1.5	2.2	3.9
Entertainment and recreation	0.6	0.6	1.2	3.3	0.0	1.1	1.2
Professional	14.5	15.0	15.0	7.8	3.9	2.5	9.0
Public administration	8.7	4.4	3.2	3.9	5.5	33.2	3.6
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979 who were enrolled in school and who held a job for at least 2 months at 20 hours or more per week since leaving school. (N = 8,710,000)



other industries. Young women were more likely to have their first jobs in wholesale and retail trade, or in professional industries, while young men were more likely to have their first jobs in construction, manufacturing, or business and repair services. There were some racial variations in these patterns. Whites (both males and females) held more jobs in wholesale and retail trade than either blacks or Hispanics; Hispanics held more jobs in agriculture, forestry, and fisheries; and blacks held more jobs in personal services.

The hourly earnings of first jobs varied by sex, race, and education (Table 18.3). As one might expect, higher education levels are associated with higher hourly earnings. And the hourly earnings of young women's first jobs were consistently lower than the earnings of young men, both across race groups and within education groups. But the racial differences are curious. White males and females did not earn more than minority males and females in all cases. For example, among persons with 13 or more years of schooling, black males had higher hourly earnings in their first jobs than either white or Hispanic males; similarly Hispanic females had higher hourly earnings than either white or black females. Overall sex differences in earnings appear more substantial and consistent than racial differences. These patterns in the wage rates of first jobs are consistent with the differences observed for current jobs discussed in Chapter 3. Variations in the usual hours worked at the first job were minimal. Young men usually worked more hours per week than young women.

The number of months worked at the first job out of school varied by sex, race, and education as well (Table 18.4). Young men



Table 18.3 Hourly Earnings and Usual Hours Worked Per Week at First Job Out of School, by Educational Attainment, Sex, and Race

		Female		-	Male		_			
Educational attainment (in years)	Black	Hispanic	White	Black	Hispanic	White	Total			
	Hourly rate of pay (in dollars)									
1-8	2. 22	2.34	2. 17	2.61	2. 23	2.72	2.44			
9-11	2.75	2.62	2.74	. 3.18	2 <b>.9</b> 3	3.30	3.01			
12	3.02	2.83	2.90	3.51	3.93	3.63	3.27			
13 or more	3.17	4.03	3.41	4.65	4.32	4.25	3.76			
Total	2.96	2.86	2.90	3.40	3.20	3.57	3.22			
		Usu	al hours	worked p	er week					
1-8	38.6	39.3	37.6	43.6	44.3	39.6	<b>39.</b> 8			
9-11	36.4	36.6	36.0	38.3	39.9	41.0	38.4			
12	35.9	37.8	37.3	39.2	41.2	42.3	39.6			
13 or more	39.6	36.5	36.7	38.8	41.2	40.7	38.4			
Total	36.8	37.5	37.1	39.1	41.5	41.6	39.2			

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979, who were not enrolled in school and who held a job at least 2 months at 20 hours or more per week since leaving school. (N = 8,710,000)



Table 18.4 Months Worked at First Job Out of School, by Educational Attainment, Sex, and Race

		Female					
Educational attainment (in years)	Black	Hispanic	White	Black	Hispanic	White	Total
1-8	17.3	1 5. 1	11.7	16.8	15.7	11.8	12.9
9-11	6.7	10.7	6.8	11.0	12.5	10.1	9.0
12	9.6	10.5	13.2	14.1	14.0	15.0	13.8
13 or more	7.6	9.0	10.7	13.7	14.1	24.8	15.3
Total	8.6	11.0	11.4	13.0	1 3. 9	14.7	12.8

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979, who were not enrolled in school and who held a job at least 2 months at 20 hours or more per week since leaving school. (N = 8,710,000)



generally held their first jobs longer than young women; whites held their jobs longer than Hispanics, who, in turn, held their jobs longer than blacks; and except for persons with less than 9 years of schooling, youth with higher levels of education held their jobs longer than youth with lower levels of education. However, within education groups, racial differences varied. For youth with less than 12 years of schooling, Hispanics held their jobs longer than blacks who, in turn, held their first jobs longer than whites. For youth with 12 or more years of schooling, the opposite is true; whites held their jobs longer than either blacks or Hispanics. Since the first job out of school is often indicative of future labor market status, these results may indicate that minorities who fail to finish high school are more likely than whites to get "stuck" in low-level jobs. Among high school graduates racial differences in tenure on first job are equally curious. More educated minorities held their first jobs less time than either similarly educated whites or other, less educated minorities. Whether this indicates that minorities move on to more lucrative positions sooner than whites, or that they have more difficulty holding on to their first jobs can only be substantiated by further research.

What are the policy implications of these findings? In general we find rather large differences between young men and young women in: 1) the type of first jobs acquired after finishing school (occupation and industry), 2) the hourly earnings associated with those jobs, and 3) the number of months worked at first jobs.



Racial differences appear less significant, except in the case of job tenure. These findings suggest that continued policy efforts need to be directed at reducing discrimination, especially toward young women. Yet racial differences are still important. Other research indicates that racial disparities in earnings tend to increase over the life cycle. Thus the present findings that show small racial differences in the hourly earnings of first jobs should be interpreted with caution. Moreover, racial differences in the number of months worked at first jobs suggest that discrimination must be examined not only in terms of initial earnings after school but also in terms of subsequent opportunities for career advancement.



### CHAPTER 19

## DESIRE FOR OCCUPATIONAL TRAINING

Respondents over the age of 15 were asked if they wanted any type of occupational training aside from regular school or college. Table 19.1 shows the responses by various demographic groups. In all categories, the majority of young people say that they would like training beyond formal education. The lowest frequency of desire for training is among those enrolled in college, and even here 53 percent say that they would like additional training. Those who are most likely to say that they would like occupational training are males, minorities, high school dropouts, those with less than a ninth grade education, participants in government training, the unemployed, and those whose families had incomes below \$15,000 in the last year. There is also a regional difference, with those in the West expressing a desire for training more often than those in the rest of the country.

Any youth who expressed a desire for more training was asked the occupation for which he or she wanted to train. Overall, the most frequently mentioned areas for training were professional and technical, clerical, crafts, and service. There were few systematic differences for any of the major demographic breakdowns, including region, age, and employment status. There was a major difference by sex, as shown in Table 19.2. In keeping with traditional occupational patterns, very few males expressed a desire for training in clerical or service jobs, both of which were mentioned by over 20 percent of the females. Conversely, while almost half of the males said that they wanted training in a craft occupation, only 6 percent of the females wanted to be trained for work in that category.



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Table 19.1 Percentage of Respondents Desiring Additional Training, by Selected Characteristics

Characteristic	Percent desiring additional training
Sex	
Female	65.3
Male	69.4
7.4.16	09.4
Race	
Black	79.0
Hispanic	76.9
White	64,5
Region	
Northeast	62.0
North central	63.9
South	66.2
West	68.1
nes c	72.3
Age	
16-17	68.3
18-19	67.9
20-21	66.0
5 33 4 4 4	
Enrollment status	
High school dropout	80.0
High school student	67.2
College student	53.1
Nonenrolled high school graduate	70.2
Educational attainment	
0-8	79.9
9-11	70.6
12	68.6
13 or more	54.1
Government training, ever	
Participant	76.7
Nonparticipant	65.6
Government training since 1/1/78	
Participant	20.0
Nonparticipant	80.0
ποπρατ ετοτραπε	66.3
Marital status	
Never married	66.5
Married	71.1
Divorced, separated, widowed	83.1
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	55.1



Table 19.1 (continued)

Characteristic	Percent desiring additional training
Income Less than \$15,000 \$15,000 or more	72.1 63.4
Employment status Employed Unemployed Out of labor force	68.3 74.4 62.1
Total	67.3

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 16 to 22 on interview date. (N=25,550,000)



Table 19.2 Areas of Additional Training Desired, by Sex and Race

Occupational area of		ex	!	Race				
desired training	Female	Male	Black	Hispanic	White	Total		
Professional and technical	36.6	28.6	33.9	27.4	32.6	32.5		
Managers and administrators	4.9	5.2	3.9	3.6	5.5	5.1		
Sales	1.7	1.4	1.1	1.5	1.6	1.5		
Clerical	26.7	2.7	19.7	20.9	12.6	14.3		
Crafts	5.6	44.4	19.8	26.3	26.8	25.7		
Operatives, except transport	1.6	7.3	5.4	4.2	4.4	4.5		
Operatives, transport	0,1	3.1	2.6	1.0	1.5	1.7		
Nonfarm labor	1.2	1.5	1.4	0.8	1.4	1.4		
Farmers, farm managers and farm laborers	0.3	0.9	0.0	0.1	0.6	0.6		
Service workers	21.2	4.9	12.2	14.3	12.7	12.8		
Total	48.3	53.1	16.1	6.9	77.0	100		

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 16-22 on interview date who reported a desire for additional training beyond school. (N=17,200,000)



The other variable which was systematically related to the type of occupational training desired was enrollment status, shown in Table 19.3. Again, all differences were in the direction of current labor force patterns. College enrollees were overrepresented in both the professional and managerial categories. In all other major areas, they were underrepresented. More than other groups, the high school dropouts said that they wanted training in crafts and operative positions. In addition to reflecting current patterns of enrollment status, training choices also reflected current patterns of occupational segregation by sex. Despite the recent movement of women into nontraditional fields, the labor market patterns of overrepresentation of women in clemical and service occupations are repeated in the distributions of fields of training desired.

The questions were asked in terms which would be expected to produce higher levels of reported desire for training than would questions about intent to actually obtain training. However, even allowing for a certain level of wishful thinking, the results suggest a widespread potential for participation in training programs. Even those in college are more likely than not to say that they would like to get further occupational training. High school dropouts, presumably the group which has had the most difficulty with traditional education, are particularly favorable toward getting nonschool training, especially in skilled trades. While these findings must be considered preliminary, they do suggest that there is widespread positive orientation to occupational training. This can provide a foundation for programs to overcome the barrier to stable employment which comes from the lack of a high school diploma.



Table 19.3 Areas of Additional Training Desired, by Enrollment Status

Occupational area of desired training	High school  dropout	High school student	College student	Nonenrolled high school student	Total
Professional and technical	23.1	33.6	45.3	30.9	32.5
Managers and administration	2.5	3.3	8.4	7.2	5.1
Sales	0.8	1.2	3.8	1.3	1.5
Clerical	16.7	13.0	10.8	16.0	14.3
Crafts	31.8	27.2	15.8	24.7	25.7
Operatives, except transport	7.1	4.2	3.0	4.0	4.5
Operatives, transport	3.3	1.8	0.3	1.1	1.7
Nonfarm labor	1.2	1.8	0.6	1.3	1.4
Farmers, farm managers and farm laborers	0.0	0.8	1.0	0.6	0.6
Service workers	13.5	13.1	11.0	12.8	12.8
Total	19.4	35.7	14.9	30.0	100

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 16-22 on interview date who reported a desire for additional training beyond school. (N=17,200,000)



# Chapter 20

# ASPIRATIONS FOR AGE 35

In a section of the questionnaire dealing with aspirations and expectations, respondents were asked the following question: "Now I would like to talk with you about your future plans. What would you like to be doing when you are 35 years old?" Those indicating that they would like to be working in the labor market were then asked to name the kind of work they would like to be doing. Analyses of the resulting data, stratified by sex, age, and race provide several interesting insights.

The desired activity/occupation group of youth stratified by sex and age jointly is shown in Table 20.1. In effect, the table combines information from the initial question and from the follow-up question. The first group enumerates respondents indicating a desire to work but unable to specify an occupation. The next twelve categories are one-digit occupation groups representing the occupations cited in the follow-up question by those indicating they planned to work in the market at age 5. The last two cagegories contain respondents to the initial question who answered "Don't know" or "Married, or keeping house, or raising a family," respectively.

Three-fourths of the total youth population aspire to work at age 35 in a specific occupation. This desire characterizes 85 percent of the young men (the bulk of the remainder responded "Don't know" to the initial question on what they would like to be doing at age 35) and about two-thirds of the young women (the majority of other women--nearly one-fourth of the total female youth population--expects to be working full time in the home).

Among those with plans to work in the labor market, almost half indicate a desire to work in professional and technical occupations. <sup>1</sup> This

Among employed workers age 16 and over in 1978, 15 percent were in this occupation group. See Employment and Training Report of the President, 1979, Table A-16, p. 261.



Table 20.1 Desired Activity/Occupation Group at Age 35, by Sex and Age (Percentage distributions)

Desired activity	Male					г		Fema	10		,
or occupation	14-15	16-17	18-19		Total	14-15	16-17		20-22	Total	Total
Working, occupation not specified	1.8	2.1	1.5	1.3	1.7	2.9	2.3			2.3	2.0
Professional, Technical	42.9	39.4	34.0	28.6	35.9	42.5	37.1	31.5	31.9	35.4	35.7
Managers, Administrators	5.1	9.7	12.2	20.2	12.1	2.2	4.0	6.6	7.1	5.2	8.6
Sales	1.9	1.1	1.1	1.5	1.4	0.6	1.0	1.2	1.9	1.2	1.3
Clerical	1.4	1.3	8.0	1.4	1.2	11.8	13.0	11.7	12.1	12.2	6.7
Crafts	19.1	20.1	19.3	16.1	18.6	1.9	1.4	1.6	1.1	1.5	10.0
Operatives (except trans- portation	4.8	3.7	5.6	3.8	4.5	0.7	1.4	2.0	2.0	1.6	3.0
Transportation operatives	4.4	4.0	2.6	2.3	3.3	0.5	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.2	1.7
Laborers	1.9	1.5	2.6	2.2	2.0	0.4	0.3	0.7	0.7	0.5	1.3
Farmers	1.5	1.7	2.0	2.1	1.8	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.5	0.3	1.1
Farm laborers	0.4	0.5	0.9	0.5	0.6	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.4
Service workers	3.7	2.3	3.3	3.3	3.1	8.5	8.3	6.3	5.9	7.2	5.1
Private house- hold workers	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1
Don't know	10.2	10.4	12.6	14.5	12.0	7.2	6.6	8.6	8.6	7.8	9.9
Home (out of the labor force)	0.9	2.1	1.5	2.2	1.7	20.1	23.8	26.7	26.1	24.4	13.1
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979. (N=32,880,000)



over-representation in high-status white-collar occupations is counterbalanced by relatively small percentages of youth desiring to work in sales, clerical, and service occupations or as operatives and laborers. Even after allowing for continuation of secular trends in the occupational mix of the work force, it is clear that in the aggregate the aspirations of youth are excessively oriented toward high-status white-collar jobs. At the same time, the data in the second row of Table 20.1 suggests that these aspirations move somewhat closer to reality as youth age--in particular, for both females and males there is a fairly steady decline in the proportion aspiring to professional jobs as one moves from younger to older age groups.

The only other notable patterns of change in expectations with age are the increases in the percentages opting for managerial and administrative positions (particularly among young men) and the moderate increase with age in the proportion of young women indicating a preference for a traditional homemaker's role. The former probably stems from greater exposure to and knowledge of the world of work, while the latter may reflect a life-cycle phenemenon as young women approach the onset of childbearing.

Sex differences in the occupational aspirations of youth largely reflect occupational differences by sex in the work force at large, albeit with a heavy over-representation in the professional and technical group (Table 20.2). Young women are somewhat more likely than their male counterparts to aspire to professional, technical, and service jobs, and somewhat less likely to indicate plans for work in a managerial or administrative capacity or as



 $<sup>^2\</sup>mathrm{Excessive}$  in the sense that not all those aspiring to professional and technical occupations will be able to secure employment in these fields.

Table 20.2 1979 Occupational Aspirations of Youth for Age 35 and 1978 Occupational Distribution of Employed Persons, by Sex

(Percentage distributions)

	Occupati	onal aspi					
Occupation	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	
White collar Professional,	82.4	<b>59.</b> 8	69.6	63.2	40.8	50.0	
technical Managers, admin-	54.0	42.5	47.5	15.6	14.7	15.1	
istrators Sales Clerical	7.9 1.9 18.6	14.3 1.6 1.4	11.5 1.7 8.9	6.1 6.9 34.6	14.0 5.9 6.2	10.7 6.3 17.9	
Blue collar Crafts Operatives Nonfarm laborers	5.8 2.3 2.7 0.8	33.6 22.0 9.2 2.4	21.4 13.4 6.3 1.7	14.8 1.8 11.8 1.3	46.4 21.1 17.7 7.6	33.4 13.1 15.3 5.0	
Service workers Private house-	11.1	3.7	7.0	20.7	8.7	13.6	
hold Other service	0.2	0.0	0.1	2.9	0.0	1.2	
workers	10.9	3.7	6.9	17.7	8.6	12.4	
Farm workers Farmers, farm	0.6	2.9	1.9	1.3	4.1	3.0	
managers Farm laborers,	0.4	2.2	1.4	0.3	2.4	1.6	
supervisors	0.2	0.7	0.5	1.0	1.7	1.4	
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	

aUNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979 with aspirations for employment at age 35 in a specific occupation. (N=24,660,000) bSource for all workers: 1979 Employment and Training Report of the

President, Table A-16, p. 261.



operatives or laborers. Occupations traditionally very heavily dominated by one sex or the other (i.e., clerical and craft occupations) are correspondingly imbalanced in youth's aspirations by sex. However, it is of interest to note that while the proportion of young men aspiring to craft and kindred occupations is almost identical to the proportion of male employment in these jobs, the proportion of young women aspiring to clerical occupations is just over half of the corresponding proportion in the female work force.

The aspirations of youth for age 35 cross-classified by race and sex jointly are provided in Table 20.3. Among females, blacks distinguish themselves by their aversion to the traditional homemaker role, which was opted for by about a forth of Hispanics and whites and by one-ninth of blacks. Host of the differences by race in the percentage expecting to be at home are offset by corresponding differences in the percentage expecting to be in white-collar occupations (64 percent for blacks and 52-53 percent for Hispanics and whites). Minority women are more likely than their white counterparts to anticipate work in low-status white-collar occupations and, to a lesser degree, in service occupations. For example, while about one in ten white women indicated she would like to be in a clerical occupation at age 35, the corresponding ratio was one in six for minority women.

Among males, there is distinctly less variation by race in occupational aspirations. Hispanics are somewhat less likely to anticipate work in white-collar jobs, and blacks and Hispanics are a bit more likely to expect to be in blue-collar occupations; otherwise, differences in aspirations by race among young men are minimal.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Greater work expectations of black women vis-a-vis white women were also evident in the 1968 NLS of young women. See S. Sandell and D. Shapiro, "Work Expectations, Human Capital Accumulation, and the Wages of Young Women," <u>Journal of Human Resources</u>, forthcoming, Summer, 1980, and see below.



Table 20.3 Desired Activity/Occupation Group at Age 35, by Sex and Race

(Percentage distributions)

		Female	<del></del>	T	Male		<del></del>
Occupation	Black	Hispanic	White	Black	Hispanic	White	Total
White collar High status <sup>a</sup> Low status <sup>b</sup>	63.9 45.4 18.5	53.0 35.5 17.5	52.2 40.1 12.1	51.2 47.8 3.4	47.0 44.9 2.1	50.8 48.3 2.5	52.3 44.3 8.0
Blue collar High status <sup>C</sup> Low status <sup>d</sup>	4.0 0.8 3.2	3.6 0.9 2.7	3.9 1.7 2.2	30.3 16.8 13.5	31.4 20.5 10.9	27.7 18.7 9.0	16.0 10.0 6.0
Service	9.5	8.5	6.6	2.3	4.1	3.2	5.1
Farmers and farm workers	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.6	2.5	2.7	1.5
Working, occu- pation not specified	2.8	3.2	2.4	2.3	2.1	1.5	2.1
Don't know	8.4	9.2	7.6	11.0	11.4	12.3	9.9
Home (out of the labor force)	11.5	22.7	<b>26.</b> 8	2.1			
			20.0	2.1	1.6	1.7	13.1
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>Professional, technical, and kindred workers; managers and administrators (nonfarm).
bSales workers; clerical and kindred workers.
CCraftsmen and kindred workers.
dOperatives and nonfarm laborers.

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979. (N=32,880,000)



An aspect of particular interest here concerns changes over time in the aspirations of young women. The question asked in the 1979 NLS of youth was also asked in the initial (1968) NLS of young women aged 14 to 24. Hence, direct comparisons between the two NLS cohorts (after restricting the age range for the 1968 cohort to insure comparability) can be made.

In light of the growth of the contemporary women's movement over the past decade, it seems plausible to expect a shift in the attitudes of young women over time towards a greater orientation to work in the market. As indicated by the data in Table 20.4, this had indeed been the case. Comparing the percentages of black and white female youth opting for the traditional homemaker's role in 1968 and 1979 reveals a most dramatic shift: whereas 37 percent of blacks and 67 percent of whites expected to be in the home in the late '60s, the corresponding percentages eleven years are 11.5 and 27, respectively. Alternatively, 43 percent of blacks and 23 percent of whites he specific occupational expectations for age 35 in 1968, and the respective percentages grew to 77 and 63 by 1979. Clearly, the 1970s had witnessed a profound change in the adult roles anticipated by young American women.

The data in Table 20.4 stratified by age group is similar in some respects to the corresponding data for 1979 (Table 20.1). Specifically, younger female youth are a bit less traditional than their older counterparts, and as youth age the proportion anticipating professional and technical employment declines. In addition, there is increased interest in managerial occupations with age (albeit with very small percentages in 1968).

Focusing on those respondents who in 1968 had specific occupational aspirations for age 35 (Table 20.5) and comparing them with their counterparts

This comparison may be somewhat biased due to differences in instructions to interviewers concerning the initial question. In cases of multiple responses, interviewers in 1979 were instructed to code the most work-oriented response. No provision was made for such cases in 1968. While this undoubtedly influences the comparison, it probably accounts for only a small part of the differences between 1968 and 1979.



Table 20.4 Desired Activity/Occupation Group at Age 35, by Race and Age, 1968

(Percentage distributions)

Occupation	Race		Age	a		<del></del>
	Black	White	14-15	16-18	19-22	Totala
Working, occupation not specified	1.7	1.1	1.3	1.4	1.1	1.2
Professional technical	17.2	11.8	17.4	12.2	10.2	12.5
Managers officials	0.8	0.6	0.3	0.4	0.9	0.6
Clerical	14.8	5.2	5.1	6.5	7.0	6.4
Sales	0.3	0.7	0.6	0.2	1.0	0.6
Craft	0.1	0.4	0.5	0.2	0.4	0.3
Operatives	1.8	0.9	0.5	0.8	1.6	1.1
Private household workers	1.8	0.0	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2
Service workers	5.7	3.5	3.8	3.9	3.8	3.8
Farmers	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1
Farm laborers	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0
Laborers	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0
Don't know, other	19.0	9.1	11.6	9.9	10.1	10.4
Home	36.8	66.5	58.5	64.2	63.6	62.7
Total percent	: :: :::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::	100	100	100	100	100

ancludes respondents whose race is other than black or white.

UNIVERSE: Women age 14-22 (from 1968 NLS of young women). (N=15,170,000)



in 1979 (Table 20.2), additional similarities as well as some interesting differences are apparent. Roughly half of the respondents in each case indicate plans for work in professional and technical occupations, with clerical workers and service workers as the only other occupation groups attracting more than one-tenth of female youth. Approximately 80 percent of female youth anticipate working in white-collar jobs in both years.

At the same time, there is a clear shift between 1968 and 1979 away from traditional and lower-status occupations. Within the white-collar group, for example, there is a six percentage-point drop in the proportion of those expe or, clerical work and a corresponding increase in the percentage with plans for professional and technical work. In addition, there is a marked increase in the proportion opting for managerial and administrative work. The percentage citing service occupations has declined; and while the percentage opting for blue-collar work is stable, young women are twice as likely to cite craft jobs in 1979. These shifts are all the more striking when it is recalled that the 1968 data refer to approximately onefourth of the female youth population while the 1979 data pertain to about two-thirds of young women. Hence, not only are today's young women markedly more likely to opt for work in the labor market, but they also have less traditional and higher occupational aspirations than their work-oriented counterparts of the late '60s.

The increase over time in young women's expectations of future market work should result in increased human capital investments and ultimately in increased relative earnings for women.<sup>5</sup> This is not to say that governmental antidiscrimination efforts will no longer be needed, but rather the proportion



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>See Sandell and Shapiro, <u>Op. Cit.</u>, for discussion of this point.

Table 20.5 Occupational Aspirations in 1968, by Race

# (Percentage distributions)

Occupation	Black	White	Total a
White collar Professional and technical Managers and officials Sales Clerical	77.9	78.5	78.1
	40.5	50.6	48.6
	1.9	2.6	2.3
	0.7	3.0	2.3
	34.8	22.3	24.9
Blue collar	4.4	5.6	5.3
Craft and kindred	0.2	1.7	1.1
Operatives	4.2	3.9	4.2
Nonfarm laborers	0	0	0
Service workers Private household Other service	17.6	15.0	15.4
	4.2	0	0.7
	13.4	15.0	14.7
Farm workers	0.2	0.4	0.3
Total percent	100	100	100

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>Includes respondents whose race is other than black or white.

UNIVERSE: Young women age 14-22 with plans to work at age 35, and specifying an occupation (from 1968 NLS of young women). (N=3,900,000)



of the male-female wage gap attributable to sex differences in human capital investments (largely postschool) is likely to diminish over time as these sex differences are reduced.

Policy actions that would appear to be of value include maintenance of antidiscrimination efforts, particularly with regard to assuring young women ready access to nontraditional jobs and to training opportunities for such jobs. In addition, programs aimed at providing greater information to youth concerning the wide variety of occupations and job opportunities that exist-particularly those outside of professional and technical employment--would be useful in reducing the concentration of youth with plans for such employment. The consequent increase that would probably occur in the dispersion of occupations to which youth aspire would enable youth in the aggregate to plan more rationally and effectively for their adult working lives.



### CHAPTER 21

# IDEAL, DESIRED, AND EXPECTED FERTILITY OF YOUTH

All respondents were asked about their family size attitudes and expectations. Separate questions dealt with ideal, desired, and expected numbers of children. The distributions of responses to these questions as well as mean values and standard deviations are provided for all respondents and separately by sex and race in Tables 21.1, 21.2, and 21.3, respectively.

The dominance of the two-child family as an ideal is apparent from Table 21.1. However, there is clearly a greater consensus around this ideal among whites than among minority respondents. While half of both female and male whites said the two-child family is ideal, the corresponding percentages range from 30 to 40 for minority youth; conversely, about one-fifth of white youth cited four or more children as ideal compared to about a third for Hispanic youth and nearly two-fifths for black youth.

Sex differences in fertility ideals are minimal among whites but quite evident among blacks and Hispanics. Minority males are less likely to opt for the two-child ideal and more likely to favor large families, resulting in higher mean ideal fertility for males by 0.12 and 0.15 for blacks and Hispanics, respectively. Overall mean ideal fertility is 2.84. Among young women the means for blacks and Hispanics are higher than that for whites by about 0.4 and 0.3, respectively; while among young men the corresponding differences are nearly 0.6 and 0.5, respectively. In addition, variation around the mean tends to be smaller for whites than for minority youth.

Desired fertility (Table 21.2) is consistently lower than ideal fertility, with an overall mean of 2.50. Again, the modal group by far is that for two



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Table 21.1 Ideal Fertility, by Sex and Race (Percentage distributions)

Ideal number		Females			Males		Total
of children	B1ack	Hispanic	White	Black	Hispanic	White	IULAI
0	1.1	0.6	0.6	1.4	0.7	0.9	0.8
1	4.3	2.4	1.6	4.0	1.7	2.3	2.2
2	34.6	39.9	50.2	30.9	34.0	49.8	46,8
3	22.7	22.6	25.6	24.2	29.5	26.6	25.7
4	24.1	24.9	16.9	21.5	21.2	15.1	17.4
5 or more	13.2	9.6	5.2	17.9	12.9	5.3	7.1
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Mean value	3.18	3.05	2.76	3.30	3.20	2.73	2.84
Standard deviation	1.55	1.31	1.10	1.64	1.45	1.10	1.21



Table 21.2 Desired Fertility, by Sex and Race
(Percentage distributions)

Desired number		Female			Male		: Total
of children	Black	Hispanic	White	Black	Hispanic	White	. 10001
0	10.3	5.5	6.8	8.2	4.5	8.5	7.7
1	13.0	7.1	6.2	7.9	3.3	4.5	<b>6.</b> 0
2	43.9	47.7	46.9	38.9	40.8	50.2	47.3
3	15.4	17.9	19.9	20.7	26.5	21.0	20.2
4	10.9	15.5	13.9	15.8	16.8	11.4	12.9
5 or more	6.5	6.4	6.4	8.5	8.1	4.4	5.8
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Mean value	2.33	2.58	2.56	<b>2.6</b> 6	2.82	2.41	2.50
Standard deviation	1.60	1.43	1.50	1.69	1.52	1.35	1.46



Table 21.3 Expected Fertility, by Sex and Race
(Percentage distributions)

Number of	-	Female		1	Male		Total
children expected	Black	Hispanic	White	Black	Hispanic	White	Total
0	9.3	3.9	6.6	7.8	4.4	8.2	7.3
1	13.4	9.0	6.2	8.0	3.7	4.9	6.3
2	41.9	44.6	48.7	36.1	39.5	50.3	47.6
3	16.9	20.3	21.5	21.8	27.9	21.3	21.3
4	12.4	14.9	12.2	15.9	16.3	11.6	12.5
5 or more	6.0	7.3	4.7	10.4	8.2	3.7	5.0
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Mean value	2.33	2.63	2.44	2.74	2.82	2.38	2.45
Standard deviation	1.45	1.49	1.26	1.73	1.48	1.23	1.32



children. Patterns of differences by race and sex are different here from before, and somewhat more complex. Among females the distributions and means of desired fertility are quite similar for Hispanics and whites, while mean desired fertility is <u>lower</u> for blacks (with nearly a quarter of blacks desiring either one child or none). Among males, by contrast, Hispanics and whites are the two extremes, with desired fertility greater by 0.4 for the Hispanics. Black males are intermediate in terms of mean desired fertility, reflecting the relatively high proportions desiring <u>either</u> small families (less than two children) <u>or</u> large families (four or more children). The gap between desired and ideal fertility is widest among blacks and narrowest for whites.

Expected fertility (Table 21.3) is slightly lower overall than desired fertility, largely reflecting a small decline for white females. For both black females and Hispanic males mean expected fertility is identical to mean desired fertility, while for lack males and Hispanic females expectations are slightly in excess of desires. Focusing directly on the distributions of expected numbers of children, we find again (as with ideal fertility) a greater consensus around a considerent for whites. Among males greater proportions of minority youth expect large families.

The relatively high proportion of black females expecting fewer than two children contributes to their having the lowest mean expected number of children, 2.33. White males and females anticipate roughly 2.4 children on average, while mean expected fertility ranges from more than 2.6 to 2.8 for Hispanic youth and for black males. At this point, then, there is a clear "disharmony" of fertility expectations among black youth, with males expecting 0.4 children more than females, on average.



It would be possible to explore the implications of these fertility expectations for future population growth. However, since expectations will undoubtedly change as these youth begin to form families and have children, we prefer here to compare these fertility expectations to those of an earlier NLS youth cohort. In 1971, respondents to the NLS of Young Women were asked about their fertility ideals and expectations. Comparison of their responses with those to the current survey permit one to ascertain changes in fertility ideals and expectations among young women in the United States during the 1970s. The data presented in Tables 21.4 and 21.5 permit such a comparison. 1

Table 21.4 provides distributions by race of ideal number of children.for female NLS respondents age 17-22 in 1971 and in 1979. Among blacks there is no change, with mean ideal fertility remaining at 3.08. There is a slight decline among whites and Hispanics, reflecting a shift in favor of two children and away from three or more children. Overall, then, there is a very small decline in the mean ideal number of children from 2.83 to 2.76, and at thus appears that the fertility ideals of young women have remained fairly stable during the 1970s.

At the same time, it is clear from Table 21.5 that fertility expectations have not remained stable. Overall mean expected fertility has declined from 2.71 to 2.40, and this reduction is apparent for both race groups. For both race groups the percentages expecting zero, one, or two children increased and those expecting three, four, or five or more children decreased.



Since Hispanic youth were not identified as such in the 1971 survey, they have been included in the "white and Hispanic" group in Tables 21.4 and 21.5.

Table 21.4 Ideal Number of Children, by Race (Percentage distributions)

Ideal number of children	Black	Hispanic and white	Total
	1971 NLS of	young women <sup>a</sup>	
0	0.9	0.8	0.8
1	3.3	1.5	1.7
2	41.1	47.9	47.0
- 3	20.2	27.7	26.8
<sub>;</sub> 4	23.1	17.0	17.7
5 or more	11.4	5.1	<b>6.</b> 0
.Total percent	100	100	100
Mean value	3.08	2.79	2.83
	1979 NLS of	youthb	
0	0.9	0.6	0.7
1	3.9	1.9	2.2
. 2	37.0	52.9	50.7
3	23.8	24.5	24.4
4	24.3	15.3	16.6
5 or more	10.2	4.7	5.5
Total percent	100	100	100
Mean value	3.08	2.70	2.76

<sup>a</sup>UNIVERSE: Young women age 17-22 in 1971 (from 1971 National Longitudinal Surveys of Young Women). (N=10,500,000)

buniverse: Female civilians age 17-22 on date of interview. (N=10,870,000)



Table 21.5 Expected Number of Children, by Race (Percentage distributions)

Expected number of children	Black	Hispanic and white	Total
	1971	NLS of young women <sup>a</sup>	
0	5.8	4.4	4.6
1	11.6	3.8	4.9
2	43.3	44.9	44.7
3	18.5	25.9	24.9
4	13.8	13.9	13.9
5 or more	<b>7.</b> 0	7.1	<b>7.</b> 0
Total percent	100	100	100
Mean value	2.63 2.72		2.71
	1979	NLS of youth b	
0	6.7	6.5	6.5
1	13.2	6.2	7.2
2	43.8	50.9	49.9
3	18.3	20.9	20.5
4	12.6	11.1	11.4
5 or more	5.4	4.3	4.4
Total percent	100	100	100
Mean values	2.38	2.40	2.40

<sup>a</sup>UNIVERSE: Young women age 17-22 in 1971 (from 1971 National Longitudinal Surveys of young women). (N=10,500,000)

bUNIVERSE: Female civilians age 17-22 on date of interview. (N=10,870,000)



Since the fertility ideals and expectations in Tables 21.4 and 21.5 from the 1979 NLS refer to females age 17-22 while those in Tables 21.1 and 21.3 refer to all respondents (age 14-22), comparison of means allows one to infer age differences in ideal and expected numbers of children. Ideal fertility of the older female youth is less than that of all female youth by essentially 0.1 for each of the three race groups, indicating that there is an across-the-board reduction of fertility ideals as youth age. Expected fertility is slightly higher for older blacks, and slightly lower for older Hispanics and whites.

The reduction in fertility expectations reported here for the period between 1971 and 1979 parallels that reported elsewhere. For example, among wives age 18-24, mean lifetime births expected as of 1971 were 2.62 for blacks and 2.35 for whites; by 1976 18 to 24 year old wives were expecting 2.30 and 2.13 children on average, respectively. A thorough inquiry into the reasons for this decline in expected fertility is beyond the scope of the present report. However, in view of the numerous studies documenting an inverse relationship between fertility and women's labor force attachment, it seems plausible to suggest a link between the decline in fertility expectations and the marked rise in the future work expectations of young women (see the chapter on "Aspirations for Age 35" in this report).

Whether or not fertility expectations remain low and actual fertility remains at the below-replacement levels first reached in 1972<sup>4</sup> is a question for future research. Perhaps women will begin to establish new patterns of combining market



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>The remainder of this paragraph looks at the three 1979 race groups separately.

 $<sup>^3</sup>$ Reported in Statistical Abstract of the United States 1978, Table 87, p. 63.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>I<u>bid., Table</u> 80, p. 60.

work and family formation activities, particularly as the former becomes an increasingly prevalent activity among married women of all ages. So long as fertility and work are related, however, it is clear that policies which are likely to influence activity in one area will also have an impact on the other. Consequently, consideration of proposed new policies and evaluation of existing policies should take into account their impact on both labor force and fertility behavior.



## CHAPTER 22

# ATTITUDES TOWARD WOMEN WORKING, FERTILITY EXPECTATIONS, AND THEIR RELATION TO EDUCATIONAL AND OCCUPATIONAL EXPECTATIONS

A scale measuring attitudes towards women's roles in the family and at work was constructed by summing the responses to the following five items:

- 1. A woman's place is in the home, not in the office or shop.
- 2. A wife who carries out her full family responsibilities doesn't have time for outside employment.
- 3. The employment of wives leads to more juvenile delinquency.
- 4. It is much better for everyone concerned if the man is the achiever outside the home and the woman takes care of the home and family.
- 5. Women are much happier if they stay at home and take care of their children.

For each item, respondents were asked if they strongly agreed, agreed, disagreed, or strongly disagreed with the statement. The final scale scores ranged from 5 to 20, with 20 representing strong agreement with each statement and thus extremely traditional attitudes. Essentially, each of the items deals with the conflict between work outside the home and successful fulfillment of the family roles which women have traditionally held.

Once the attitude scale was developed, it was cross-classified with certain basic demographic characteristics such as age, sex, and race. In addition, we examined the relationships between traditional attitudes and expectations about fertility and education. For a subsample of employed young women we examined the links between current employment activity and both attitudes and fertility expectations; and for all young women traditional attitudes were cross-classified by plans for age 35.



A total of eight items was included in the questionnaire. Inspection of inter-item correlations showed that the five selected items all correlated well with each other, while the remaining three questions were unrelated.

Table 22.1 shows the distributions on the traditional attitude scale by sex, and for each sex by race. On this and subsequent tables on attitude distributions, those with scores from 5-9 on the scale are categorized as "nontraditional," those with scores from 10-12 are classified as "moderate." while scores from 13-20 are called "traditional." For the sample as a whole, these cut-offs resulted in 28, 46, and 26 percent of the population in the three respective categories. Thus, the categorizations used resulted in similar proportions of the youth population in the nontraditional and in the traditional groups. It is evident from the table, however, that traditional attitudes about women's roles and working wives are distinctly more prevalent among young men. Almost one-third of the males have very traditional attitudes, while about one-sixth hold nontraditional views. Among the young women, by contrast, nearly 40 percent are nontraditional while roughly one in five expressed highly traditional views. The sex difference is most easily summarized by the different mean values on the scale: 10.3 for the young women compared with 11.6 for the young men.

Within each sex, it is clear that Hispanic youth tend in general to have the most traditional actitudes by far: nearly half of Hispanic males and almost 30 percent of the females have highly traditional attitudes, and means are highest for Hispanics. Blacks and whites have less traditional attitudes, with roughly one-third of the males and one-fifth of the females falling into the traditional group. Finally, it is also clear that race is a distinctly secondary influence when compared to sex: the most traditional females (Hispanics) are still less traditional than the least traditional males (whites).

With regard to age, examination of traditional attitudes was confined to young women and stratified by race. As indicated in Table 22.2, the patterns



Table 22.1 Traditionality of Attitudes, by Sex and Race (Percentage distributions)

Traditionality		Fema		, I	Male			
of attitudes	Black	Hispanic	White	Total	Black	Hispanic	White	Total
Nontraditional	37.8	30.4	39.0	38.3	18.7	10.8	18.0	17.6
Moderate	41.4	40.3	42.9	42.5	45.5	40.1	51.1	49.7
Traditional	20.8	29.3	18.1	19.2	35.8	49.2	30.9	32.7
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Mean value	10.4	11.1	10.2	10.3	11.7	12.6	11.5	11.6



Table 22.2 Traditionality of Attitudes of Young Women, by Race and Age
(Percentage distributions)

Carried St. San Carried	<u> </u>		<del></del>	<del></del> _
Tradicionality of attitudes	14-15	16-17	18-19	20-22
	-	Bla	ck	
Nontraditional	32.4	39.2	35.6	43.3
Moderate	40.0	40.8	44.8	39.9
Traditional	27.6	20.1	19.6	16.8
Total percent	100	100	100	100
		Hisp	anic	
Nontraditional	25.4	34.1	27.2	34.0
Moderate	36.7	43.4	46.1	35.3
Traditional	37.9	22.5	26.7	30.7
Total percent	100	100	100	100
	-	Wh	nite	
Nontraditional	37.9	40.1	39.6	38.3
Moderate	41.8	41.9	43.8	43.7
Traditional	20.2	18.0	16.6	18.1
Total percent	100	100	100	100

UNIVERSE: Female civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979. (N=16,440,000)



of attitudinal change with aging are somewhat different by race. Among black women, there is a clear shift away from traditional attitudes as youth age. The shift is sharpest between the youngest and older age groups. A similar and even more pronounced shift is apparent between the two younger groups of Hispanic women, but this does not continue—Hispanic women age 18 and over are slightly more traditional than those age 16–17. Among whites, age differences in attitudinal distributions are generally smaller, with a modest decline in traditional attitudes between those aged 14–15 and those 16–17 years of age and no significant change afterwards. In general, then, young women aged 14–15 tend to have more traditional attitudes than their older counterparts, with age differences weakest among whites and strongest among blacks.

While knowledge of attitudinal differences by age, sex, and race is interesting in its own right, the principal aim of this chapter is to examine the degree to which youth's attitudes toward women are correlated with fertility and educational expectations and with both current and prospective labor market activity. Table 22.3 shows the relationship between traditional attitudes and expected numbers of children, separately by sex. In general, the data in the table suggest that there is a mild positive relationship between scores on the scale of traditional attitudes and expected numbers of children. Among women the relationship is readily apparent: as the expected number of children increases, the proportion of female respondents with traditional attitudes toward women increases steadily (although not substantially) while the proportion with nontraditional attitudes tends to



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>It is possible that attitudes are more strongly related to desired fertility than to expected fertility. We have focused on expectations in the belief that they would be more proximate determinants of the educational, training, and career decisions of youth.

Table 22.3 Traditionality of Attitudes, by Expected Number of Children and Sex

(Percentage distributions)

Traditionality of attitudes	0-1	2	3	4 or more	Total			
		Female .						
Nontraditional	44.6	37.6	38.4	35.0	38.3			
Moderate	38.3	44.0	43.1	41.4	42.5			
Traditional	17.0	18.4	18.5	23.7	19.1			
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100			
			Male					
Nontraditional	18.3	18.7	16.0	16.7	17.7			
Moderate	48.7	50 <b>.1</b>	52.2	45.4	49.6			
Traditional	33.0	31.2	31.8	37.9	32.7			
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100			



decline. Among the young men, however, the relationship is distinctly weaker, with the most striking result being that 38 percent of those males expecting four or more children have highly traditional attitudes toward women compared to about 32 percent of males expecting fewer than four children. Further disaggregation by race (not shown here) reveals that the patterns by sex for all respondents characterize both whites and Hispanics but not their black counterparts (for whom attitudes and expected fertility appear to be entirely uncorrelated).

The absence of a strong relationship between attitudes toward women and expected numbers of children does not mean that traditional attitudes do not influence fertility behavior. Evidence supportive of this contention is provided in Table 22.4, which shows the distribution of age at which the respondent expects to (or did) become a parent ("age of parenting") for each of the three attitude groups, separately by sex. It is apparent from the table that traditional attitudes toward women are associated with earlier fertility: among women, for example, 12 percent of those with nontraditional attitudes expect to become mothers before age 20 compared to 27 percent of women with highly traditional attitudes, while motherhood not until age 25 or later is anticipated by 35 percent of the former group but only 17 percent of the latter. A similar pattern is evidenced by males, with somewhat less sharp differences in age of parenting by attitude group and generally higher ages of parenting being expected. For each sex, the mean age of parenting declines as one moves from less to more traditional attitudes, and conversely, the mean score on the attitude scale declines as one moves from the under 20 to the 20-24 and then to the 25 and over parenting age groups.



Table 22.4 Age of Parenting, by Traditionality of Attitudes and Sex (Means and percentage distributions)

Age	-	Female				Male			
of parenting	Non- tradi- tional	Moderate	Tradi- tional		Non- tradi- tional	Moderate	Tradi- tional	1	
Younger than 20	11.7	16.3	26.6	11.2	3.9	6.8	9.7	12.4	
20-24	44.3	52.6	50.9	10.5	38.8	43.6	50.5	11.9	
25-29	31.7	23.4	15.4	9.6	38.9	36.7	27.2	11.3	
30 or older	3.2	2.0	1.8	9.7	9.6	5.1	5.2	11.1	
Never	9.1	5.6	5.3	9.6	8.8	7.9	7.4	11.5	
Total percent	100	100	100		100	100	100		
Mean value of age of parenting <sup>a</sup>	23.4	22.5	21.6		24.8	24.1	23.3		

 $<sup>^{\</sup>mathrm{a}}\mathrm{Exc}$  luding respondents who expect no children or for whom the age provided is less than 15 or greater than 40.



The less traditional attitudes toward women associated with higher expected age of parenting is evident for each sex/race group (Table 22.5). Among Hispanics, declines in traditionality as age of parenting increases from under 20 to 20-24 are comparable for males and females, while among blacks and whites the declines are slightly but consistently larger for women. Again, then, despite the weak relationship between attitudes and the expected <u>number</u> of children, there is a clear relationship between attitudes toward women and the expected <u>timing</u> of children.

The correlations between attitudes toward women and educational expectations are substantial (Table 22.6). Among both young men and young women, as the expected level of education increases there is a clear concomitant decline in traditionality. This pattern is also apparent within cach of the individual sex/race groups (not shown here). It is not possible to make inferences from tabular relationships about the underlying causal mechanisms at work here--e.g., do nontraditional attitudes lead to higher educational expectations, or are both attitudes and expectations consequences of some other factors? In any case, the relationship is quite strong: whereas 25 percent of young women who do not expect to go to college have highly nontraditional attitudes, the corresponding figures for those anticipating up to and beyond a bachelor's degree are 46 and 58 percent, respectively. The figures for young men reflect their generally more traditional attitudes, yet they also show a strong relationship between attitudes toward women and educational expectations.

For the subgroup of nonenrolled women currently employed and working at least twenty hours per week, we examined the relationship between current



Table 22.5 Mean Score on Scale of Traditional Attitudes, by Age at Which Respondent Expects to Become a Parent, Sex and Race

Age of		Female			Ma 1 e		
parenting	Black	Hispanic	White	Black	Hispanic	White	
Younger than 20	11.0	11.7	11.2	12.2	13.0	12.4	
20-24	10.4	11.4	10.4	11.8	12.7	11.8	
25-29	9.3	10.0	9.5	11.2	12.3	11.2	
30 or older	9.0	10.2	9.8	11.0	11.9	11.0	
Never	10.2	10.6	9.5	11.8	12.5	11.4	



Table 22.6 Traditionality of Attitudes, by Expected Educational Attainment and Sex

(Percentage distributions)

Traditionality of attitudes	12 or less	13-16	17 or more	Total
	Female			
Nontraditional	25.2	46.2	58.3	38.4
Moderate	46.8	40.9	32.9	42.6
Traditional	28.1	12.9	8.9	19.0
Total percent	100	100	100	100
	Male			
Nontraditional	11.0	20.1	33.3	17.7
Moderate	46.7	54.0	47.4	49.7
Traditional	42.3	25.8	19.3	32.6
Total percent	100	100	100	100



occupational assignment and attitudes toward women (Table 22.7). In brief women in higher-status jobs generally and those in nontraditional higher-status jobs in particular are strikingly more nontraditional than their counterparts, while those in lower-status blue-collar occupations evince distinctly more traditional attitudes. Thus, whereas 35 percent of the employed nonstudents hold nontraditional views and 20 percent are highly traditional, the corresponding percentages for those in professional and technical jobs are 48 and 13 percent; and the figures for those in managerial, administrative, and craft occupations are 60 and 9 percent, respectively. Among operatives, laborers, and private household workers, by contrast, only 29 percent are nontraditional while 27 percent hold highly traditional views.

The distributions of expected numbers of children by occupation group are shown for this same subgroup of nonenrolled employed women in Table 22.8. As in the preceding table, those young women in professional and technical, managerial and administrative, and craft occupations are different from other young women. Specifically, those currently in nontraditional and higher-status occupations tend to have lower expected fertility, with larger proportions expecting two or fewer children and smaller proportions expecting three or more children (as compared to the women in clerical and sales jobs and in blue-collar and service occupations).

The final part of this chapter consists of an examination for all young women of the relationship between attitudes toward working women and women's roles and future plans concerning the labor market. Table 22.9 shows the means and distributions of traditional attitudes cross-classified by desired activity at age 35. Women aspiring to higher-status white-collar



Table 22.7 Traditionality of Attitudes, by Occupation Group
(Percentage distributions)

Occupation	Nontraditional	Moderate	Traditional	[otal percent
Professional, technical	47.8	39.2	13.0	100
Managers, administrators, crafts	59.9	31.4	8.7	100
Clerical, sales	34.9	46.3	18.8	100
Service workers	33.4	47.3	19.4	100
Operatives, laborers, private household workers	29.2	44.0	26.8	100
Total	35.3	45.1	19.7	100

UNIVERSE: Nonenrolled female civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979, who were employed on the interview date and who usually work 20 or more hours per week. (N=3,480,000)



Table 22.8 Number of Children Expected, by Occupation (Percentage distributions)

Occupation	0-1	2	3	4 or more	Total percent
Professional, technical	20.2	59.9	13.7	6.2	100
Managers, administrators, crafts	17.6	62.2	8.8	11.4	100
Clerical, sales	14.0	51.9	19.9	14.2	100
Service	15.6	52.2	16.1	16.1	100
Operatives, laborers, private household workers	11.9	56.0 53.6	17.5	14.5	100
10001	14.4	33.0	17.0	14.2	100

UNIVERSE: Nonenrolled female civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979, who were employed on the interview date and working 20 or more hours per week. (N=3,480,000)



Table 22.9 Traditionality of Attitudes, by Desired Activity/Occupation Group at Age 35

(Percentage distributions)

Occupation	Non- traditional	Moderate	Tradit:onal	Total percent	Mean
Professional, technical	49.4	38.5	12.1	100	9.6
Managers, administra- tors	52.1	41.6	6.3	100	9.2
Clerical, sales	37.2	44.7	18.1	100	10.3
Crafts	19.0	33 !	. 17.9	. 165	9.6
Operatives, laborers, farmers	27.6	5 <b>5.</b> 0	17.4	100	10.5
Service workers	33.5	41.3	25.2	100	10.6
Don't know	37.3	44.6	18.1	100	10.3
Home (out of labor force)	21.2	46.1	32.7	100	11.5
Total	38.2	42.4	19.3	100	10.3

UNIVERSE: Female civilians age 14-21 on January 1, 1979. (N=16,440,000)



occupations and to craft jobs are considerably less traditional than other women, with half of the former group holding nontraditional attitudes. Those women anticipating employment in other occupations or unsure of their plans for age 35 are more or less "average" in terms of their means and distributions of traditional attitudes. By contrast, those women who plan to be home and out of the labor force at age 35 are distinctly more traditional than other young women—nearly a third of them have highly traditional attitudes compared with 15 percent of other women. Thus, attitudes toward women appear to be an important correlate of plans for age 35.

In light of evidence indicating that aspirations for future market work are related to investments in on-the-job training by young women, the implication is that traditional attitudes toward women will be associated with low levels of human capital investment generally (see the data above on educational expectations and traditional attitudes) and of investment in on-the-job training specifically. Current trends indicate that more and more women will, at some time in their lives, be primary wage earners for themselves and their families. The inference is easily drawn that more traditionally oriented women, having either restricted themselves to traditional, low income, women's jobs or left the labor market entirely, may experience great difficulty in providing an adequate income at such times.

It can also be inferred that even women with strongly nontraditional attitudes do not indicate that they are abandoning family formation. The



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>See S.H. Sandell and D. Shapiro, "Work Expectations, Human Capital Accumulation, and the Wages of Young Women," <u>Journal of Human Resources</u>, forthcoming, Summer, 1980.

weak association between traditionality and expected number of children shows this. What appears to be the difference in fertility expectations between traditional and nontraditional women is the <u>context</u> in which they expect to have and raise their children. The total pattern of results suggests that nontraditional women are more likely to expect to complete their education and begin a career, then start their families. For blacks and whites, this appears to apply to men, also.

A comment about sex differences in the relationships between traditionality and aspirations is in order. The particular attitudes measured here focus specifically on the appropriateness of work for women, so it is not surprising that the relationship between the attitude scale and various plans for adulthood are stronger for young women than for young men. Still, the traditionality of young men is not a trivial issue. It has been repeatedly found that a husband's support, or lack of it, for a woman's education and career efforts is one of the major factors in women's labor market activities. Much speculation, also, has revolved around the conflicts between men's traditionality and women's rising aspirations as a cause of the increased rates of marital dissolution in the past decade.

It is axiomatic that further analysis will be necessary in order to understand fully the implications of this sort of traditionality for fertility and employment. Still, it can be suggested that there may be at least one area in which the current analysis has policy implications. Teenage pregnancy is a major problem, especially in some urban areas. Changing attitudes about the appropriateness of alternative roles for women, through information and example, may encourage young girls to postpone childbearing until they



complete their education and enter employment. Easing social pressures on girls by also incouraging such postponement for boys may be crucial for addressing the problem.



### CHAPTER 23

## KNOWLEDGE OF THE WORLD OF WORK

The youth were provided with three descriptions of each of nine occupations and asked which best described the occupation. The mean score for the fourteen to twenty-two year old population was 6.1. As might be expected, there was substantial variation in the scores for different groups of young people. These are shown in Table 23.1.

Knowledge of the world of work as shown by the scores on this test was considerably lower for minorities than it was for whites. The mean score for blacks was 4.9, for Hispanics 5.0, and for whites 6.4. Thus, the average black youth was not able to define one-sixth of the occupations which were known by the average white youth, and the average Hispanic was very little more knowledgeable than the black.

The scores also varied with age, rising by approximately two-thirds of a point between each of the three youngest age groups and by about a half of one point between the two oldest groups. The oldest group could describe correctly two more occupations than could the youngest group.

As expected, knowledge of the world of work was also related to education. High school dropouts had the lowest score; high school students came next, followed by high school graduates; and finally college students had the highest score. There was also a substantial improvement in scores as years of schooling completed increased. The scores were 4.3, 4.7, 5.8, 6.9, and 7.6 for youth who had completed zero, one to eight, nine to eleven, twelve, and thirteen or more years of schooling, respectively.



Table 23.1 Mean Number of Correct Answers to Knowledge of the World of Work Questions, by Various Characteristics

	Mean	Standard Deviation
Race Black Hispanic White	4.9 5.0 6.4	2.0 2.1 2.0
Sex Female Male	6.0 6.2	2.0 2.1
Age 14-15 16-17 18-19 20-22	5.1 5.7 6.4 6.9	1.9 2.0 2.0 1.9
Region Northeast North central South West	6.2 6.3 5.7 6.1	2.1 2.0 2.1 2.0
Enrollment status High school dropout High school student College student Nonenrolled high school graduate	5.3 5.5 7.5 6.9	2.1 2.0 1.5 1.8
Educational attainment 0 1-8 9-11 12 13 or more	4.3 4.7 5.8 6.9 7.6	1.4 1.9 2.0 1.8 1.4
Health limitation No Yes	6.4 5.0	2.1 2.2
Participated in government programs No Yes	6.1 5.9	2.1



Table 1 (continued)

Characteristic	Mean	Standard Deviation
Marital status Never married Married Divorced, separated or widowed	6.1 6.5 6.3	2.1 2.0 1.9
Family income \$0 to \$4999 \$5000 to \$9999 \$10,000 to \$14,999 \$15,000 to \$19,999 \$20,000 to \$24,999 \$25,000 to \$29,999 \$30,000 to \$39,999 \$40,000 or more	5.6 5.8 6.0 6.3 6.7 6.9	2.2 2.2 2.0 2.0 2.0 1.9 1.9
Children at home Males with children Males without children Females with children Females without children	6.5 6.2 5.9 6.0	1.9 2.1 2.1 2.0
Employment status <sup>a</sup> Employed Unemployed Out of the labor force	6.7 5.7 6.1	1.9 2.1 2.1
Total	6.1	2.1

 $<sup>^{\</sup>rm a}$ Only for persons who were 16-21 on date of interview.



Knowledge of the world of work also varied with income of the youth's family in 1978. For those who reported an income of \$40,000 or more the score was more than one point higher than for those whose family income was less than \$5,000. The increase was not uniform, however. The scores were similar for the four groups of youth whose family income was less than \$20,000. Finally, it should be noted that employed youth had higher scores than either the unemployed or those out of the labor force. The employed had a score of 6.7 while the unemployed knew only 5.7 of the answers, and the out of the labor force group scored 6.1.

From these data we must conclude that those persons who are most disadvantaged in the labor market—minorities, the less educated, youth from families with low income, and the unemployed—are substantial and operate. ledgeable about the labor market in which they are attempting to operate. Earlier studies also have indicated that lack of knowledge of the world of work is associated with long-run labor market difficulties. Under the circumstances, it would seem appropriate to introduce labor market information into school curricula.



See Herbert S. Parnas and Andrew Kohen, "Occupational Information and Labor Market Status: The Case of Young Men," <u>Journal of Human Resources</u>, Vol. 10, No. 1 (Winter, 1975).

#### CHAPTER 24

INFLUENCES ON YOUTH'S LIFE DECISIONS: THE ROLE OF SIGNIFICANT OTHERS

Respondents under the age of eighteen were asked to indicate the person who had had the most influence on their feelings about school, marriage, jobs, and having children. Such influential persons are called "significant others." In much sociological work, significant others are held to be central to the development of the self-concept, where formation, and the eventual fulfillment of adult roles. In the later analysis of the NLS youth data, use of this measure should help illuminate the processes of entry into the labor market and transmission of social class.

Table I shows the types of persons young people report to be influential. The variety of possible responses are grouped into categories, depending upon whether the person named was an adult or another youth, and upon whether the person was a relative or someone outside the family. A small proportion, 2.6 percent, of the youths refused to name anyone as their significant other, despite explicit probing by the interviewer. These youths are called "isolates." Significant others who could not be clearly classified were assigned to the "other" category, which accounts for less than 4 percent of the total responses. Because of the presumed heterogeneity of the persons included in this category, no attempt will be made to interpret findings associated with it at this time.

Table 24.1 shows clearly the continuing importance of parents to adolescents. Almost 70 percent of the youths named their parents as the ones most influential on their attitudes. While 41 percent included both parents, when only one parent was mentioned, mothers were named twice as often



Table 24.1 Nominations of Significant Others

Who has influenced you  $\underline{most}$  on how you feel about things like school, marriage, jobs, and having children?

Type of person	Percent	Category of person	Percent
No one	2.6	Isolates	2.6
A teacher An older friend A guidance counselor	2.0 3.3 0.6	Nonrelated adults	5.9
Father or stepfather Mother or stepmother Mother <u>and</u> father	9.2 19.8 40.6	Parents	69.6
A brother A sister Husband or wife	2.9 3.0 0.1	Siblings and spouse	6.1
A female friend about the same age as R A male friend about the same age as R	7.2 4.9	Nonrelated peers	12.2
Another relative A co-worker Other	2.9 0.1 0.6	Other	3.7
Total percent	100		100

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-17 on interview date. (N=15,510,000)



as fathers. Indeed, when the gender of the significant other was available from the coding, females were consistently more likely to be named than were males.

As shown in Table 24.2, boys were more likely than girls to say they were influenced by adults, particularly parents. Girls were much more likely than boys to say they were most influenced by same-aged friends. This probably reflects the greater importance for girls of success in social activities outside the home.

Table 24.2 also shows the distribution of type of significant other by race. Hispanics were least likely to say that they felt their parents were their biggest influence. Whites, on the other hand, were most likely to name parents and same-aged friends.

Table 24.3 gives type of significant other by enrollment status. Because the questions were only asked of younger respondents, almost none had graduated from high school. Comparing dropouts with high school students. then, the table shows that dropouts were more likely to be isolates, or to go to adults outside the family. The number of dropouts is small, so interpretation must be cautious, but they are underrepresented among those who chose the typical significant others, that is, parents and same-age friends.

## Significant Others and Life Choices

Previous work, particularly in the area of crime and juvenile delinquency, has shown that it is extremely important to the process of maturing into conventional adulthood that youths form strong ties with people who themselves support conventional values and behaviors. Many programs addressed to troubled youths are based on the premise that allowing the

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Table 24.2 Type of Significant Other, by Race and Sex (Percentage distributions)

Type of significant						
other	Female	Male	Hispanic	B1ack	White	Total
Total	49.0	51.0	6.6	14.G	79.4	100
Isolates	2.4	2.8	3.6	3.4	2.3	2.6
Nonrelated adult	5.5	6.3	7.3	7.5	5.5	5.9
Parent	68.1	<b>71.</b> 0	66.3	68.8	<b>7</b> 0.0	69.6
Peer friend	14.5	9.9	11.3	<b>7.</b> 0	13.2	12.2
Sibling or spouse	6.2	5.9	8.3	7.2	5.7	6.1
Other	3.4	4.0	3.2	6.2	3.3	3.7
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-17 on interview date.(N=15,510,000)



Table 24.3 Type of Significant Other, by Enrollment Status (Percentage distributions)

Type of significant other	High school dropout	High school student	Totala
Total	6.7	92.9	100
Isolates	5.9	2.3	2.6
Unrelated adult	9.6	5.7	5.9
Parent(s)	63.9	70.0	69.5
Unrelated peers	8.4	12.4	12.2
Sibling or spouse	7.8	5.9	6.1
Other	4.4	3.6	3.7
Total percent	100	100	100

 $<sup>^{\</sup>rm a}\textsc{Total}$  contains 0.5 percent who were college students or nonenrolled high school graduates.

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-17 on interview date. (N=15,510,000)



youngster to form a strong relationship with a responsible person is the first step in solving the problem.

After respondents named their most influential persons they were asked to describe how this person would react to any of a series of major choices the youths made about their careers and their adult life styles. This allows a determination of the nature of the influences which the youths feel on their lives. Tables 24.4 through 24.6 give the average level of perceived support by each category of significant other for the total sample by sex and by race. Since the figures are averages of a four-point scale, a score of about 2.5 irdicates roughly equal frequency of approval or disapproval for a given life decision. Scores of more than three or less than two points can be considered strong approval and strong disapproval, respectively.

Looking first at Table 24.4, the scores for the total sample, the first three items ask about deciding to pursue a specified career--carpenter, accountant, or electrical engineer. The lowest levels of support are for becoming a carpenter, which is a skilled trade while the other two careers rated are professions. Family members, particularly parents, are seen as being more approving of any career than are unrelated persons. There is much less support generally for going into the armed forces than for any of the careers. The peers are particularly likely to be seen as opposing enlistment. All groups are seen as opposing the decision not to go to college, especially adults.

The remaining three items have to do with more general life style issues. Parents are seen as cending to oppose the youths moving away from home at age 21. The other groups are not seen as too keen on the idea, either, but the averages are around the center of the possible distribution



Table 24.4 Mean Support for Life Decisions, by Types of Significant Other<sup>a</sup>

Life decision	Nonrelated		Nonrelated	Sibling		
1110 000 13 1011	adult	Parent	peer	or spouse	0ther	Total
You decided to become a carpenter.	2.79	2.95	2.82	2.90	2.92	
You decided to become an accountant.	3.14	' 3.41	3.17	3.28	3.37	3.36
You decided to become an electrical engineer.	3.09	3.21	2.94	3.05	3.14	3.16
You decided to join the armed forces.	2.48	2.57	2.14	2.33	2.59	2.50
You decided <u>not</u> to go to college.	1.80	2.01	2.21	2.18	1.94	2.04
You decided to move far away from where your parents live when you are 21.	2.55	2.32	2.62	2.58	2.33	2.39
You decided never to have children.	2.23	2.26	2.18	2.31	2.26	2.25
You decided to pursue a full time career and delay starting a family b.	2.84	3.05	2.87	3.00	2.96	3.01

 $<sup>^{\</sup>rm a}{\rm Scores}$  range from 1, indicating strong disapproval, to 4, indicating strong approval.

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-17 on interview date who named a significant other. (N=15,100,000)



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup>This question asked for girls only. (N=7,280,000)

Table 24.5 Mean Support for Life Decisions, by Types of Significant Others and by Sex of Respondent

Life decision	Unrelated adult	Parents	Unrelated peers	Sibling or spouse		Total
You decided to become a carpenter.						
Female Male	2.46 3.07	2.64 3.23	2.47 3.28	2.53 3.27	2.38 3.36	2.60 3. <b>24</b>
You decided to become an accountant.						
Female Male	3.19 3.10	3.49 3.34	3.29 3.01	3.34 3.23	3.43 3.31	3.43 3.28
You decided to become an electrical engineer.						
F <b>emale</b> Mal <b>e</b>	2.76 3.37	2.90 3.50	2.57 3.46	2.66 3.45	2.68 3.51	2.81 3.49
You decided to join the armed forces.						
Female Male	2.17 2.73	2.31 2.81	1.95 2.40	2.13 2.53	2.04 3.04	2.23 2.75
You decided not to go to college.						
Female Male	1.74 1.99	2.01 2.01	2.05 2.43	2.14 2.23	1.82	2.00 2.07
You decided to move far away from where your parents live when you are 21.						
Female Male	2.60 2.51	2.27 2.37	2.57 2.68	2.49 2.68	2.11	2.34 2.43
You decided never to have children.				w.		
Female Male	2.11 2.34	2.31	2.18 2.20	2.31 2.31	2.29	^.27 23
You decided to pursue a full-time career and delay having a family.	1					
(girls only)	2.86	3.07	2.87	3.02	2.98	02

ERSE: Civilians age 14-17 on interview date who named a signif other. (N=15,100,000)



Table 24.6 Mean Support for Life Decisions, by Type of Significant Other and by Race of Respondent

Life decision	Unrelat <b>e</b> d adult		Unrelated peer	or	: 	
		Parent	peer .		Other	Total
You decided to become		 	İ	: <b>1</b>		•
a carpenter.				İ		
Black		2.98	2 <b>.6</b> 8	2 <b>.7</b> 3	2.83	
Hispanic		2.81	2.63	2 <b>.7</b> 8	2.61	2.77
White	2.79	2.96	2.84	2.95	2.97	2.93
You decided to become			i	:		
an accountant.			•	:	:	
Black	•	3.44	3.36		3.36	
Hispanic		3.40	3.12		£ 3.5 <b>7</b>	
White	3.10	3.41	3.16	3.24	3.35	3.35
You decided to become				<u>.</u>		
an electrical engineer.			:		•	•
Black		3.18	3.02	2.99	3.08	
Hispanic		3.21	2.91	3.13	. 2.78	3.16
White	3.07	3.22	2.93	3.05	3.19	3.16
You decided to join the		; ;				•
armed forces.		i		İ	•	
Black		2.69	2.48	2.53	2.73	,
Hispanic	2.53	2.51	2.26	2.61	2.24	
White	2.40	2.56	2.10	2.25	2.57	2.47
You decided not to	1	İ	1			•
go to college.	3.05	1 00	1 00	, ,,	: 2 00	1 2 00
Black Hispanic	1.85 1.86	1.90	1.80	1.73	1.99	,
White	1.89	2.04	2.02	2.05	1.83	
MIT 7 0C	1.05	2.04	2.20	2.30	1.93	1 2.07
You decided to move far	i	!		i I	;	
away from where your	j ·			ļ	1	į
parents live when you		! !	i			!
are 21. Black	2.49	2.36	2.54	2.53	2.41	2.40
Hispanic	2.49	2.14	2.36	2.53	2.41	4
White	2.58	2.33	2.64	2.61	2.32	
You decided never to		· •	1			
nave children.		İ		į		1
Black	2.18	2.38	2.22	2.30	2.24	2.34
Hispanic	2.12	2.18	1.94	2.35	2.09	
White	2.25	2.25	2.20	2.31	2. 7	2.25
You decided to pursue a		! !		;	!	
full-time career and	į	i		:	į	!
delay having a family.	!		į	İ	į	İ
Black	· 2.5 <b>7</b>	3.06	2.86	3.02	12.//	2.99
Hispanic	2.74	2.94	2.64	2.89	2.72	
White	2.90	3.06	2.89	3.01	13.05	3.02

UNIVERSE: Civilians age 14-17 on the interview date who named a significant other. (N=15.100.000)



indicating about equal support and disapproval. The only really unexpected finding in Table 24.4 is on the two questions about expected family formation. Peers and unrelated adults are <u>less</u> likely than family members to be seen as supporting the decision never to have children, or for young women to pursue a career and delay starting a family.

Table 24.5, giving significant others' support for life choices by sex, shows strong evidence of sex typing in career choices. Girls perceive much more support for becoming an accountant than for going into either carpentry or electrical engineering. Boys see very strong support for selecting electrical engineering, and moderately strong support for carpentry and accounting. A similar sex difference is seen for enlisting in the armed forces. For girls, all types of significant others are seen as disapproving enlistment, especially peers. Boys, on average, see moderate levels of approval for enlistment.

Overall, there is surprisingly little variation by sex in perceived approval of college and of voluntary childlessness. In fact, there is more disapproval of the decision to forgo college for girls than for boys, and girls tend to report their parents as <u>less</u> disapproving of the decision never to have children than do boys. For both sexes, peers tend to be seen as disapproving of voluntary childlessness. As expected, girls are more likely than boys to see their significant others (particularly parents) as disapproving of their moving far away from home.

By race, shown in Table 24.6, there are only minor differences in perceived support for specific career choices. Blacks see much more support for enlisting in the armed forces than do either whites or Hispanics, especially among those with adult significant others. Ironically, whites seem to perceive the least disapproval for not going to college.



In line with the notion of strong family values among Hispanics, there is a clear trend for this group to see less approval for moving away from parents and for delaying or deciding not to have a family than for either whites or blacks.

These questions will be most useful in later analyses, to help understand the transmission of social class and the processes of entering the labor force. Immediate policy implications are largely in the area of job counseling. It is clear that adolescent girls are still being channeled into certain occupational areas (e.g., accounting) and out of others (e.g., carpentry and engineering). This is particularly the case for girls whose closest ties are with peers rather than adults. To the extent that such channeling tends to restrict young women to poorly paid and overcrowded fields, counseling and training efforts should be directed at making the full range of occupations available and acceptable.

The armed forces are clearly more acceptable to blacks than to other racial groups, especially for those who nominate adults as their strongest influences. If the volunteer army is not to become a segregated area, it must make itself acceptable to all groups.



#### CHAPTER 25

## SUMMARY AND POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS

This is a preliminary report on the labor market and educational experiences and attitudes of a nationally representative sample of 12,693 youth who were born in calendar years 1957 through 1964 and were interviewed during the spring of 1979. The findings are subject to change with more refined and extensive analyses. However, to meet the need of the Department of Labor for an early indication of possible findings twenty-four topics have been studied using cross-tabular analyses. Major findings of this report and preliminary policy recommendations are summarized below.

# Summary

Chapter I provides an overview of the demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of the youth in this age cohort. In addition to basic information on demographics, the chapter finds that 2.1 million had participated in a government employment and training program during 1978, 2 million had health limitations affecting their employment, 14 million age 16-21 were employed in the week before the interview and 3.4 million were unemployed.

Chapter 2, on youth employment status, finds that for the 16-21 year olds, the labor force participation rate was 71 percent, the unemployment rate 19 percent and the employment to population ratio 57 percent. The 40 percent unemployment rate for black youth was more than twice



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as high as for whites. Their employment to population ratio was only 65 percent of that for white young people, and their labor force participation rate was approximately 10 percent lower. Hispanics had an intermediate position with regard to unemployment a comployment to population. As shown by other studies, unemployment was rost severe for the younger teenagers.

Over half the youth in school were also in the labor foliar. The NLS found higher overall rates of labor force participation. Uncomployment and employment to population than does the Current Population Survey. The differences were particularly evident among the 16-17 year olds and youth who were in school.

Among employed youth, described in Chapter 3, the majority work less than 35 hours per week. Youth most frequently were employed as service or clerical workers, laborers or operatives. The mean wage for the youth was \$3.47 per hour, with minority men (but not minority females) earning less than their white counterparts. School dropouts earned over 50 cents per hour less than nonenrolled high school graduates. High school dropouts also were found to spend more time getting to work and were less satisfied with their jobs, feeling they offered less opportunity for advancement. Generally, however, youth were satisfied with their jobs, particularly in the case of young whites.

Chapter 4 focuses on youth employment patterns during 1978, the year preceding the survey. Nearly four-fifths of the youth 16 and older held a job that year; a third held two or more jobs. School dropouts had the highest percentage with no job during the year. Black youth were considerably less likely than whites to have worked during the year,

with Hispanics in an intermediate position. Whereas whites worked during more than half the year on average, blacks worked only for about one-third of the year.

Government sponsored employment and training programs are surveyed in Chapter 5. Approximately 2,250,000 young people said they had participated in government-sponsored employment and training programs since January 1, 1978; about one-third had participated in more than one program. The enrollments were about equally divided between summer programs, year-round programs for students and other year-round programs. One-third of the participants were black and 11 percent were Hispanic, with the black youth slightly more concentrated in summer program. Over 90 percent of the youth were employed in subsidized jobs, nearly half nad job counselling, one-quarter reported skills training, and about 15 percent reported receiving medical and transportation services. Services seem to be in line with needs; over one-third of school dropouts received SEU training and 33 percent received basic education.

About three-fourths of the participants felt the programs ha improved their chances of employment and more than half of those who had worked subsequent to participation felt the programs helped their job performance. The things most liked about the programs were the jobs or training, the pay and the chance to learn. Almost half said there was nothing that they disliked about the programs.

Overall, 87 percent were very satisfied or somewhat satisfied with their programs.

Chapter 6 focuses on working students. Nearly one-half of all students in the age cohort 14-21 were employed Among high school



students, whites were about twice as likely to be employed as minorities.

Youth from poor families were less likely to be employed than those

from middle class families.

Almost two million youth, 14-21, who were not in school or in the labor force are the subject of Chapter 7. More than three-quarters of these were women, for whom family related factors were the primary reasons for not working. Chapter 8, dealing with job turnover and job leavers, finds lower turnover among minorities and that among youth who left a job since January 1, 1978, minorities were more likely to lose rather than quit their jobs than their white counterparts.

Chapter 9 investigates job search activities of youth. About 3.4 million unemployed and an equal number of employed youth 16-22 looked for work during the four weeks preceding the interview. Financial need was the reason for seeking jobs most often cited by both groups. The number of job search techniques employed by the youth was limited; over 50 percent of both groups used only one and about 90 percent used one or two techniques. There was relatively little variation by age, sex, race or educational status. Direct contact with employers was used by three-fifths of the youth, looking at newspaper advertisements by one-third, and the state employment service was used by 10-15 percent of the youth.

Perceptions of discrimination and barriers to employment are the subjects of Chapter 10. Nearly half of all youth said that age discrimination had kept them from getting a good job. About one-third said that transportation had been a barrier to employment.



Racial discrimination was perceived as a problem by about 20 percent of the minority youth, and almost one in seven young women felt they had encountered sex discrimination. Problems with English were mentioned as a barrier to employment by 17 percent of the Hispanic youth.

Chapter 11 investigates willingness to work. When asked whether they would take each of seven full time jobs at three alternative wage rates, black youth were found to be significantly more willing to accept private employment at each wage level than were whites. Substantial numbers, at least one-fifth of all youth, were willing to work at less than the minimum wage. Fourteen and fifteen year olds were particularly willing to work at \$2.50 an hour, but even among 18-19 year olds over 1 million youth said they would work at this wage.

Chapter 12 describes the health status of youth. About three percent of the youth could not accept employment because of health limitations. An additional 3 percent were restricted in the amount or type of work they could perform. As expected, health limitations were related to age and sex.

Chapter 13 analyzes attitudes toward school. When asked a series of questions about their schools, students enrolled in grades 5-12 generally expressed positive attitudes. Four-fifths or more thought their teachers knew their subjects and were willing to help with personal problems, and felt that school offered freedom to learn, required thinking to the best of their ability and provided good ab counselling. On the other hand, over half said most of their classes were boring, one-fourth said they could get away with almost anything at school and one-tenth felt unsafe at school.



Chapter 14 investigates educational aspirations and expectations.

Almost half of all youth aspire to complete college but only 38 percent expect to do so. Youth from poor families are those most likely to expect to get less education than they desire.

The experience of high school students according to variations in their curriculum is described in Chapter 15. More than one-half of vocational education students who had left school found jobs in their field within six months. Relatively fewer blacks, however, had found such jobs. There were no large differences in the labor force participation, unemployment or wage rates among vocational, college preparatory, and general curriculum high school graduates who were not enrolled in college.

Nearly one in eight or 4 million youth between 14 and 21 had dropped out of school without a high school diploma; in the case of Hispanic youth almost one quarter were dropouts. For those 18 or older, the dropout rate approached one in five. Chapter 16 shows that dropping out was directly related to family background. Reasons for leaving school were primarily family related for young women, while young men were more likely to leave for economic reasons or because they did not like school. Once out of school, dropouts had lower labor force participation, unemployment rates nearly three times higher, and substantially lower wage rates than high school graduates.

Chapter 17 looks at the college student population. Overall college enrollment rates were almost one-third lower for minority than for white youth 18-21. However, for high school graduates college enrollment rates were similar among racial groups, implying that the lower overall rates arose because fewer minorities complete high school. Minority college



students, particularly blacks, were more likely than white students to receive grants and loans but less likely to receive financial assistance from family, relatives and friends.

Chapter 18 focuses on the first job after leaving school. The first regular job after leaving school was most often in a clerical or service occupation for women while men were more likely to be employed in trade occupations. The hourly rates of pay of the men were substantially higher on these jobs.

Chapter 19 describes the desire for occupational training. Two-thirds of youth 16-21 desired additional training outside of regular schooling. While the poor, minorities and school dropouts, expressed the greatest desire for such training, more than half of all college students express such an interest. The greatest interest was in training for professional and technical occupations by both young men and women, craft jobs by young men and clerical and service employment by young women.

Aspirations for age 35 are the subject of Chapter 20. The vast majority of the young people expected to be working at age 35. This is true of young women as well as young men. Today, two-thirds of young women expect to be in the labor force; this is a substantial change since 1968, when only about one-quarter expected to be working. In addition, more of the young women expect to be in nontraditional occupations than was the case in the late 1960s. These findings are congruent with their views on ideal, desired, and expected fertility. Chapter 21 shows that the number of children expected by young women had declined between 1971 and 1979.

Chapter 22 discussed attitudes towards women working, fertility expectations and their relation to educational and occupational expectations.



Hispanic youth had more "traditional" views of women's roles than did black or white young people and males were more traditional than females. The more traditional attitudes were associated with the expectations of earlier parenting, a higher number of expected children, lower educational expectations and reduced expectations of labor market participation.

Chapter 23 explores how much youth know about the world of work.

As shown by a score on an occupational information test, minority youth, the less educated, younger teenagers, the unemployed and youth from families with lower incomes had considerably less knowledge of occupations than others.

Chapter 24 investigates who influences young peoples' life decisions. Youth 14-17 years old were asked to identify the person most influential on their feelings about school, marriage, jobs, and children. Almost 70 percent indicated their parent(s). Siblings and peers were mentioned by 18 percent. Of eight life choices, not attending college was seen as the decision most likely to be disapproved. For females, being an accountant was seen as being more acceptable to significant others than being an electrical engineer, carpenter or member of the military, in that order. For males being an electrical engineer was perceived to be most acceptable.

# Policy Implications and Recommendations

The overwhelming picture painted by this report is one of youth actively participating in the labor force. Contrary to popular belief, the majority of students as well as those who are out of school are employed or want to work. We can no longer think of the labor market and school as mutually exclusive; young Americans want to work while



they go to school. This calls for a change in how society things of young people and new government policies for dealing with them in the labor market.

Altering perceptions. Our attitudes toward youth need to be reexamined. While perceptions of discrimination may not always be based in fact, nearly half of all youth feel that they have difficulty in getting a good job because of age. There appears to be a common view that youth are not interested in working; yet the NLS labor force participation rate for 16-21 year olds is higher than that of adult women. Further, we find little substance in the commonly held belief that when youth are willing to work they will do so only at unrealistically high wage rates. A substantial number of young people express willingness to work in a variety of jobs even at wages less than the Federal minimum.

Our perceptions of youth in the labor market will become more realistic as labor market statistics better reflect their actual situation. The persistent discrepancies between the reports of employment, unemployment and labor force participation in the Mational Longitudinal Surveys and those of the Current Population Survey (CPS), raise doubts about the latters accuracy. It has been hypothesized that the differences are due to the fact that CPS data for youth generally are supplied by another household member whereas the NLS speaks directly to the youth. A simple test of this hypothesis should be instituted by the Bureau of Census.

Employment Policy. As the country enters a period where an increasing proportion of the population is elderly and dependent on those who are working; when rising fuel costs may lead to greater substitution of labor for capital; and when evidence shows that early experience in the labor



market may affect later labor market success, it is clearly poor social policy to underutilize a resource that desires employment. Social interest as well as the individual well being of young people argue for greater efforts by government to help youth find jobs.

There are several government actions that may be taken to aid youth in finding jobs in the private sector.

- A. Young people should be provided with increased knowledge of the world of work and trained in how to search for a job.

  Providing this information, particularly to the economically disadvantaged and minorities, could reduce their relative ignorance of these subjects that put youth at a disadvantage. Young women might also be counselled to seek employment in nontraditional occupations.
- B. Expand government anti-discrimination efforts and other measures to counteract age, race, and sex discrimination.

  Legislatively, one could add youth to the categories covered by the Civil Rights Act and modify existing laws and regulations that unnecessarily restrict youth from being employed in certain occupations. Another, possibly more easily implemented, procedure would be to increase the amount of information about young people brought to the attention of potential employers. Such information should include indications of the willingness of young people to work, i.e., data like those presented in this report that show a strong willingness of minority youth to seek employment and that demonstrate the current generation of young women have long-term commitments to the labor force as well as the desire to perform jobs



- traditionally denied them.
- C. Alter the minimum wage laws to expand opportunities for youth while minimizing adverse effects on adults. Among the possibilities are lowering the minimum wage for 14 and 15 year olds, providing a sub-minimum wage for young people who work less than 20 hours per week, having a youth minimum wage applicable only to certain entry occupations, or some combination of these.
- D. Improve transportation systems. While youth tend to work closer to home than adults, transportation is a problem cited by many of them as a barrier to good employment. Although improved systems of public transportation must be justified on more general bases, such as improved energy efficiency, their effect on youth employment should be noted. Experimental programs designed specifically to meet the transportation needs of youth might also prove beneficial.

Youth may also be provided work experience in the public sector.

Much has been said by external reviewers about the "make work" character of such programs. Based on our data, however, the young participants are quite satisfied with their employment and believe that it will be beneficial to them. One can argue paternalistically that young people do not know what is good for them, but at least some studies show that participation in these programs has a positive long run impact on the earnings and employment of youth. Serious consideration should be given to expanding the number of job opportunities when it can be demonstrated that the products produced by the young people will be valuable to society.



Educational and training policy. The NLS data reinforce earlier educational policy recommendations. We find that high school students are generally satisfied with their education, but a disproportionate number of minorities do not complete high school. In the case of young women, this is due primarily to familial factors; for young men, it is more a matter of choice. Once out of school, however, the drop-outs have much more difficulty in the labor market. They experience greater unem, syment and when employed, are found in less satisfying jobs with lower wage rates. Of course, it is not certain that remaining in school until graduation would have improved the situation of these individuals, but this does appear to be a distinct possibility. To the extent that this is the case, efforts to reduce the number of young people who leave before completing high school should therefore continue. The data suggest several potential government policies that may have this effect.

- A. Since youth wish to work while in school, programs should be designed that make continuing their education a requirement for employment. (The Youth Incentive Entitlement Pilot Projects program already does this on an experimental basis.) Another possibility would be to allow a sub-minimum wage that would apply only to persons enrolled in a high school program. This would provide an extra incentive for employers to hire high school students, increase the opportunities for students to work and require only moderate changes in the Fair Labor Standards Act which now allows some students to work at 85 percent of the minimum wage..
- B. Since family responsibilities are a particularly important cause of young women dropping out of school, special



- efforts seem warranted to provide alternative schooling opportunities to such women. Such programs might combine education and day care for those with young children; also transfer payments might be conditioned on receiving further schooling.
- C. The NLS indicate that parents are the primary persons influencing young people and that young people perceive their parents as wanting them to finish school. This suggests that increased information on the long run impact of dropping out targetted to the parents of potential dropouts might produce stronger influences on the young people to stay in school. This would be particularly helpful if accompanied by programs which alleviate any family financial burdens imposed while the youth remain in school.
- D. Young people generally have high educational aspirations, but those from disadvantaged backgrounds have lower educational expectations. The NLS data indicate that these lower expectations are realistic. It would appear, however, that federal and state programs to provide economic assistance to low income and minority families have been successful in raising the rates of college attendance for these groups. Continuation of these programs, therefore, seems warranted.
- E. The overwhelming majority of young people want to receive training in addition to their schooling. Careful examination should be made of the training opportunities available to young people, particularly the economically disadvantaged and minorities, to insure that they receive sufficient training to overcome their initially poorer positions.



To summarize, youth in 1979 have a strong desire to work and a strong need to continue their schooling. Consequently, governmental policies which promote the combining of education and employment and which remove unnecessary barriers to youth should be encouraged. If policies can reinforce the positive attitudes of young people toward employment by aiding them to find work while continuing their educations, we believe that the economic and social well-being of youth in the 1980's will be substantially improved.



# APPENDIX A SAMPLE DESIGN AND WEIGHTING

## INTRODUCTION

The 1979 National Longitudinal Survey of Youth made use of three independent probability samples. Two of these samples were designed to cover the non-institutionalized, civilian population in the age range 14-21 (as of January 1, 1979). A third sample was designed specifically to cover the military portion of the 14-21 age cohort.

The two samples which cover the civilian portion of the age cohort will be referred to by the terms "cross-sectional" and "supplemental." The study design for the 1979 National Longitudinal Survey of Youth required extensive disproportionate oversampling among Hispanic, Black, and Economically Disadvantaged non-Hispanic non-Black youth. The cross-sectional sample was designed to yield approximately 3,000 males and 3,000 females, with various racial, ethnic, and income groups represented in their proper population proportions. The supplemental sample was designed to produce, in the most statistically efficient way, the required oversamples of Hispanics, Blacks and Economically Disadvantaged non-Hispanic non-Blacks. The distribution of year one sample cases across these two samples is shown in Table 1.



TABLE 1

DISTRIBUTION OF COMPLETED CASES ACROSS
CROSS-SECTIONAL AND SUPPLEMENTAL SAMPLES

# Sample Size

Population Group	Cross-Sectional	Supplemental	Total
Male			
Hispanic	207	716	923
Non-Hispanic Black Economically-Disadvantaged	342 166	1,101 756	1,443 922
Other	2,290		2,290
Female_	•		
Hispanic	215	734	949
Non-Hispanic Black	399	1,078	1,477
Non-Hispanic Non-Black Economically Disadvantaged	163	915	1,078
Other	2,330	adaration.	2,330



## CROSS-SECTIONAL SAMPLE

The cross-sectional sample used for the non-institutionalized civilian portion of the 14-21 youth cohort was based upon the 102 PSU NORC National Probability Sample. This sample was developed and initially used in 1973. The sample has been continuously updated since that time. The sampling frame covers the continental United States.

Stage I. The Primary Sampling Units are composed of: Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas (SMSAs), counties, <sup>1</sup> parts of counties, <sup>2</sup> and independent cities. Stratification criteria used in the first stage of selections include: Census Division, SMSA-nonSMSA, county size, and percentage black. The selection of primary units was carried out with probabilities proportional to 1970 Census population (PPS), using replicated "zone" selection. A total of 204 PSUs was selected. In this survey, we made use of two of the four replicates comprising 102 PSUs.

Stage II. The secondary units of selection are block groups (BGs) in areas for which Census blocks have been designated, and enumeration districts (EDs) in unblocked areas. Prior to selection, the second-stage (within-PSU) frame of EDs and BGs was stratified on the basis of median family income and percentage black. The each primary sampling unit, eighteen secondary selections were made with probability proportional to size from eighteen equal-size zones. A subsample of nine secondary units was used for the 1979



Where necessary, counties were combined so that their aggregated 1970 population exceeded 12,000.

In New England, we defined the portion of a county outside an SMSA as a PSU.

In areas that were not tracted, median household income and percentage black were estimated using a regression routine based on MCD or tract information.

National Longitudinal Survey of Youth.

Stage III. Whenever possible, secondary selections were subdivided into third stage listing units (segments). One listing unit was then selected for each secondary selection with probability proportional to estimated housing. If it was impossible to subdivide a secondary selection into well-defined subunits, this stage of sampling was bypassed (i.e., subsampling at Stage III was accomplished with probability one).

NORC interviewers have carried out dwelling unit listing within all third-stage segments. Prior to initial use, those listings were subjected to a number of checks. 6 In order to maintain an accurate record of dwelling units, master sample listings are periodically updated. This updating procedure occurs at the end of the field period for each research study. During the updating period, and in conjunction with NORC "missed dwelling unit" procedure, information is gathered regarding changes in the entire segment (e.g., demolition of DUs, new construction). This information is then integrated into our computer-based Master Listing of NORC PSUs.

Stage IV. Approximately 20,500 listed DUs and IQs<sup>7</sup> were screened (household rosters were obtained) from the cross-sectional sample. Stage III segments were subsampled in order to produce an equal probability sample of households and individual quarters distributed among the 909 segments (10½ PSUs x 9 segments per PSU). Selection of these listings was accomplished through the use of ANSPAK (NORC's computerized sampling program package). There were an average of twenty-two selected dwelling units and IQ's per sample cluster resulting in an average of 6.8 inscope youths. All inscope youths found in this screening stage were designated for subsequent interview.



<sup>4</sup> For BGs we employed Block Statistics, for EDs we made field counts.

<sup>5</sup> The minimum size for listing units was 100 DUs.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> A comparison was made with Census estimates and/or field counts. Also, a number of internal consistency checks for sequential listing and procedures were initiated.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> INDIVIDUAL QUARTERS (IQ) is a term used to describe non dwelling unit non-institutional living quarters.

#### SUPPLEMENTAL SAMPLE

As noted previously, this sample was designed specifically to yield a highly efficient sample of the three youth cohorts designated for over-sampling (i.e., Hispanics, non-Hispanic Blacks, and non-Hispanic non-Black economically disadvantaged). Thus for this sample, stratification specifically relevant for these groups was used. In addition, Probability Proportional to Size (PPS) procedures were based on size measures for these cohorts rather than the general population. In multi-stage samples, PPS procedures are used in order to achieve control over the distribution of sample cases among the primary sampling units and within the ultimate clusters that form the primary sampling units. By using size measures based on the three over-sampled cohorts, it was possible to more nearly equalize the distribution of these groups among the various sampling units than would have been possible in a cross-sectional design which used PPS procedures based on total population.

#### STAGE I

Primary sampling units consisted of counties and independent cities. First-stage selection of these units was carried out with probabilities proportional to measures of size that reflected the black, Hispanic and economically disadvantaged population within the PSU. These measures of size were constructed from the 1970 Census Fifth Count (File C), which provided required estimates at the enumeration district-block group level within each county and independent city. Prior to use, 1970 size estimates were updated to 1977 Census estimates on a county basis.

For each primary sampling unit a measure of size was constructed as  $MOS_{i} = H_{i} + .5 \times B_{i} + ED_{i},$ 

where  $H_i$ ,  $B_i$  and  $ED_i$  denote the estimated population sizes for Hispanics, blacks and economically disadvantaged non-Hispanics non-Blacks respectively.

Given that the measures of size need only reflect relative population size, and given the relatively uniform ratio of estimated 14-21 cohort to total population, no attempt was made to reapportion size measures to the youth cohort. The factor of .5 applied to the Black population in the construction of PSU measures reflected the fact that among the three population groups of interest the oversampling rate for Blacks was approximately one half the rate



to be used for Hispanics and economically disadvantaged non-Hispanic non-Blacks. Prior to sample selection, PSUs were stratified on the basis of the 9 standard Census Divisions. Within each of these divisions, further stratification was based upon Urban-Rural location (within or outside and SMSA). Finally, within each of the 18 major strata (9 divisions x 2 urban/rural classes) PSUs were ordered by proportion of PSU population containing target group members. A systematic "zone" selection procedure was used to select 100 Primary Sampling Units with probabilities porportional to the previously discussed target group measures of size.

## STAGE II

Within selected primary units, the units of second stage selection were either Census block groups or enumeration districts. These second stage sampling units were assigned measures of size by the same procedure that had been used in constructing measures at the first stage of sampling. Since the first stage measures had been created by aggregating information at the block group and enumeration district level, from the Fifth Count File C Census tape, the process of assigning second stage measures was simply a disaggregation procedure.

Prior to selection, second stage units were sort ordered by estimated proportion of population containing members of the target population. Adjoining units were then linked, when necessary, in order to have a minimum size measure of 25.

Within each selected primary sampling unit, nine secondary units were selected using a systematic zone procedure with probabilities proportional to target group measures of size.

#### STAGE III

Whenever possible, selected secondary selections were subdivided into third stage listing units (segments). One listing unit was then selected for each secondary selection with probability proportional to estimated housing. If it was impossible to subdivide a secondary selection into well defined subunits, this stage of sampling was bypassed (i.e. subsampling at stage III was accomplished with probability one). It should be noted that because measures of size used at stages one and two were based upon target population rather than total population, the number of housing units con-



tained within any two third-stage segments with the same measure of size might be quite different. In general, we tried to make use of third stage segments containing measures of size in the range 25-50 with between 50 to 500 housing units.

NORC interviewers carried out dwelling unit listings within all 900 third stage segments. Prior to use, these listings were subjected to a number of internal and external checks. Listers were required to seek out reasons for differences between number of housing units found at the time of listing and the number of housing units reported by the 1970 Census. Within each block, checks were made, where possible, for consistent ordering of street numbering of listed units.

### STAGE IV

The fourth stage of selection involved selecting a sample of dwelling unit and individual quarters listings within the 900 selected third-stage segments. Screening, which involved enumeration of all persons within selected dwelling units (on a family unit basis) was conducted in two Waves. In general, selection of third stage listings was carried out with probabilities designed to equalize the overall probability of selection through the four stages of sampling. However, there was some degree of oversampling (increased probability of selection) among third stage units which were estimated to contain a higher proportion of individuals in the three population groups designated for overrepresentation (i.e. Hispanics, non-Hispanic Blacks, and economically disadvantaged non-Hispanic and non-Blacks).

The fourth stage of sampling resulted in the selection of approximately 65,000 listed lines (dwelling units and indidividual quarters) over the 900 third stage segments.

### STAGE V

Family unit screening of selected dwelling units and individual quarters selected at stage IV produced somewhat more individuals in the Hispanic and non-Hispanic Black cohorts than were required. As a result, it was necessary to select a subsample of these individuals for base year interviewing. Table II shows the number of individuals in each of the six oversampled cohorts that were located in the screening phase and the number selected for base year interviewing.



TABLE II

NO. OF INDIVIDUALS LOCATED IN SCREENING AND DESIGNATED

FOR BASE YEAR INTERVIEW-SUPPLEMENTARY SAMPLE

DESIGN	COHORT	LOCATED IN SCREENING	SELECTED FOR BASE YEAR INTERVIEW
MALES			
HISPANI	c	1,015	854
NON-HIS BLACK	PANIC	1,318	1,268
ECONOMIO DISADVA (non-hi-non-bl.	NTAGED spanic	887	886
FEMALES			•
HISPANI	С	1,060	855
NON-HIS BLACK	PANIC	1,502	1,204
ECONOMI DISADVA (non-hi non-bl	NTAGED spanic	1,073	1,073



Procedures used for the selection of individuals for base year interview were designed to equalize, as much as possible, final overall probabilities of selection for individuals within the same design cohort. Specifically, since some degree of differential oversampling was applied in the fourth stage selection of dwelling units for screening, individuals located in the screening process had not been selected with the same probabilities. Within the constraints of probability sampling, probabilities associated with the stage five subsampling process were set inversely proportional to the probabilities of selection for prior stages (i.e. product of stages one through four). As a result, the variation in probability of selection among individuals (within a design cohort) retained in the sample after stage five was decreased from the variation in probabilities among all screened individuals within the same design cohort.



# SPECIAL PROCEDURES USED IN BOTH THE CROSS-SECTIONAL AND SUPPLEMENTAL SAMPLES

There were several special procedures used in both the cross-sectional and supplemental samples to accomplish the following goals:

- 1. Inclusion of Dwelling Units in the sample which were either missed in the listing process or were constructed after the listing process took place.
- 2. Inclusion in the sample of non-college individuals living in non-institutionalized, non-dwelling unit living arrangements.
- 3. Inclusion in the sample of college students living in non-dwelling unit quarters.

## PROCEDURES FOR INCLUSION OF UNLISTED (MISSED) DWELLING UNITS

As part of its standard field methods, NORC makes use of a procedure to give a proper probability of selection to dwelling units that did not exist or were missed at the time of original listing or during segment updating. The method we employ is an application of the half-open interval technique. This procedure explicitly links every nonlisted DU in a segment with exactly one listed DU in that segment.

It should be noted that through the implementation of the half-open interval procedure each listed dwelling unit represents a cluster of dwelling units. This cluster is composed of the listed DU (line) and any other missed DUs associated with that line.

Conceptually, the procedure is simple. The set of DU listings (lines) for a segment is made up of one or more subsets of lines (blocks). Each block consists of an ordered set of lines. Each of the lines represents either a complete structure (i.e., a single-family dwelling unit) or a subunit within a structure (i.e., an apartment in an apartment building or complex). Whenever a line is selected that is a complete structure, all dwelling units within that structure are included in our sample, as are any dwelling units between the selected structure and the next structure listed in the same block. 10

<sup>10</sup> The listings within each block are considered circular (i.e., the last listing within a block is followed by the first). 3



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Even if a listing contains a within-structure description (e.g., 304 Main, 2nd floor) it is considered a structure listing if there is no other listing that refers to that structure.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> If structures have numbered street addresses, "between" is defined in terms of these address numbers. In areas where numbers are not used, "between" is defined in terms of location.

If a selected line is a complete structure, our insturctions to the interviewer are as follows:

For each listing that identifies a subunit within a structure, there must be at least one other listing within the same structure. Our listings are so ordered that for each structure in which subunits are listed there must be a unique first-subunit and a unique last-subunit listing.

When we select the first subunit in a multiple structure, we include in our sample all dwelling units that exist within the selected subunit, as well as any dwelling units within the structure that are not already listed. When the first subunit of a multiple structure is selected, the following instruction is given to the interviewer:

When the selected line is the last subunit listing of a multiple structure, we include in our sample all dwelling units within the selected subunit and all dwelling units between the structure in which the subunit is contained and the next listed structure in the block. Here the instruction to the interviewer is:

If the selected line is a non-first/non-last subunit listing, we include in the sample only dwellings within the selected subunit. In this case, the following instruction is used:

(selected line description)
Message 3: Check for missed DUs at this apt. only.

<sup>11</sup> This follows from the definition of a listing as either a complete structure listing or a subunit within structure.



# PROCEDURES TO INSURE COVERAGE OF THE NON-DU POPULATION (COLLEGE DORMS AND OTHER GROUP QUARTERS)

Since the initial cohort definitions include civilian youth aged 14 to 21 living in all noninstitutional settings, special procedures were used to insure appropriate sample coverage in living units not classified as dwellings. These nonDU living units include college dormitories and other group quarters.

In past surveys of the noninstitutional adult population, NORC has used a <u>single</u> procedure to obtain sample coverage of the nonDU, noninstitutional civilian population. Because of the restricted age distribution in the proposed survey, NORC made use of two procedures. One of these procedures was used to cover the noncollege portion of this nonDU population; another procedure was used for college students.

# PROCEDURES FOR THE INCLUSION ON NONCOLLEGE "GROUP QUARTERS"

The inclusion of the noncollege, noninstitutional, nonDU population aged 14 to 21 was accomplished by the following two-stage procedure. The first stage was carried out prior to the beginning of field interviewing. Each segment in use for the survey was field enumerated for all group quarters structures, except college dormitories. Within these group quarters structures, a complete listing of individual quarters (IQs: beds and/or rooms with beds) was undertaken. The listing of IQs was then subsampled using the same final-stage selection procedure applied to dwelling units within the segment.

The second stage in the NORC group quarters sampling procedure was carried out at the time of screening in conjunction with the standard NORC missed dwelling unit procedure. All group quarters except college dorms that were not explicitly listed in the first step of the individual quarters procedure were eligible for selection at this stage. These non-first-stage group quarters are implicitly linked to listed dwelling units by the same linking rules applicable to nonlisted dwelling units. For each selected dwelling unit, a check was made for implicitly linked but unlisted dwelling units as well as for implicitly linked but unlisted individual quarters units. As is the case with our missed dwelling unit procedure, the instructions for the missed individual quarters procedure were computer-generated for each selected dwelling unit. The interviewer was provided with specific instructions indicating the appropriate DU/IQ checks that must be carried out at each selected dwelling unit.



#### SPECIAL PROCEDURES FOR COLLEGE STUDENTS

As of October 1976, approximately one-third of the civilian population between the ages of 18 and 21 was enrolled in college. <sup>12</sup> In many household surveys the coverage of the college population is haphazard and ill-defined. Given the nature of the proposed research, special procedures were used to insure complete coverage of this portion of the youth cohort.

Through a set of explicit rules, every full— or part—time college student was "linked" to a unique living unit that had a known probability of entering the sample. These rules "link" college students who live in a non-DU setting (Dorms) away from their parents' homes for parts of the year to their parents' home. This alternative was chosen for both sampling and operational reasons. From a sampling standpoint, linkage of college students living in non-DU settings to parents' DUs will tend to minimize the occurrence of small area "pockets" of inscope population and the resulting large variability in cluster size. From the standpoint of field operations, the parents' home represents a contact location of relative stability. This will be most crucial in the yearly follow—up efforts.

The specific linkage rules are as follows:

- College students who live in a specified dwelling unit on a yearround basis are linked to that dwelling unit.
  - . College students who do not live in dwelling units on a year-round basis are linked to their parents' or guardians' DUs.
  - . In situations where the application of this condition results in multiple linkages (e.g., divorced or separated parents living in two separate DUs), a unique linkage is established on the basis of maximum financial support.

Should this condition not provide a unique linkage, the following priority scheme is used:

- . Living natural or adoptive mother
- . Living natural or adoptive father
- . Living female guardian
- . Living male guardian



<sup>12</sup> Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census School Enrollment-Social and Economic Characteristics of Students P20N309

Should these rules provide no linked DUs, a student was linked to his or her non-year-round place of residence.

In order to implement this procedure, we collected potential linkage information at all sample DUs and GQs (i.e., we asked parents about children that are away at school). In most situations, unmarried college students in the 14 through 21 cohort were linked to their parents' DU; married couples or cohabiting couples living in DUs on a year-round basis were linked to their own DUs, married couples or cohabiting couples not living in a DU on a year-round basis were linked to their respective parents' DUs.



#### SAMPLE OF YOUTH COHORT IN ACTIVE MILITARY SERVICE

As of September 30, 1978, there were 657,549 members of the Active Armed Forces who would be between the ages of 17 and 21 as of January 1, 1979. Individuals in this group were sampled by a stratified, two stage selection procedure. The sample design for this portion of the youth cohort was developed in cooperation with DOD, Defense Manpower Data Center, the Rand Corporation DOD Survey Group, the NLS staff and NORC. Actual selection of sample individuals was carried out jointly by DOD, Defense Manpower Data Center and NORC.

The basic sample design called for the selection of a sample of approximately 1300 members of the active armed forces. In order to provide samples of sufficient size for separate estimates with respect to sex, it was decided to sample females at a rate approximately six times that used for males. This would produce approximately 850 males and approximately 450 females. Within each group, all individuals were to be sampled with equal probability. Within each sex, the sample was stratified on the basis of branch of service and geographic location. Proportionate allocation was used with respect to these stratification cells. Sample selection was carried out in two stages.

Each of the four armed services (Army, Air Force, Navy and Marine Corps) maintains up to date lists of all personnel. Included in these lists is information about age, sex and assignment UIC (unit identification code). It would have been possible to sample individuals from these lists directly in a single stage of sampling (i.e. simple random element sampling), however, because of the face-to-face nature of the base year interview, it was decided to make use of cluster sampling.



The primary units of sample selection were composed of individuals within the same unit identification code. This unit code typically defines a group of individuals residing at the same physical location. Over all services there were a total of 12,488 UIC's containing one or more persons in the 17 - 21 youth cohort. Because of the differential sampling rates to be applied to males and females, these UIC's were first separated into two groups: Group 1 consisted of UIC's with no females in the 17 - 21 cohort; Group 2 consisted of UIC's with at least one female in the 17 - 21 cohort.

Each of the two groups of UIC's was divided into 20 basic strata, defined on the basis of armed service branch and geographic location as follows:

- I. ARMED SERVICE BRANCH: (4 branches)
  - A. ARMY
  - B. NAVY
  - C. AIR FORCE
  - D. MARINE CORPS
- II. GEOGRAPHIC LOCATION (5 categories)
  - A. EASTERN UNITED STATES
  - B. WESTERN UNITED STATES
  - C. EUROPE
  - D. FAR EAST
  - E. OTHER

Within each of these 20 basic strata UIC's were linked together in order to form primary sampling units (PSU's) as follows:

- 1. UIC's in group 1 (males only) were linked in order to form PSU's with a minimum of 20 males.
- 2. UIC's in group 2 (at least one female) were linked in order to form PSU's with a minimum of 20 males and 10 females.



In the linkage process, attempts were made to minimize the geographic distance among UIC's within the same PSU. This linkage process resulted in the formation of 3,711 group 1 and 2,256 group 2 PSU's across the 20 basic strata.

First stage selection of PSU's was carried out within each of the 20 basic design strata separately for males and females. Within each sex the probability of selection for a PSU was proportional to the number of 17 - 21 youth (of that sex) within the PSU.

Let  $MOS_{mi}$  = the number of 17 - 21 males within the i<sup>th</sup> PSU  $MOS_{fi}$  = the number of 17 - 21 females within the i<sup>th</sup> PSU

For the male sample, the probability of selection for the i<sup>th</sup> PSU was  $f_{mi} = \frac{150 \text{ MOS}_{mi}}{579.508}$ 

For the female sample, the probability of selection for the i<sup>th</sup> PSU was:  $f_{fi} = \frac{110 \text{ MOS}_{fi}}{47.305}$ 

For both the male and female samples the probability of selection for the i<sup>th</sup> PSU was constrained to an upper limit of unity. Thus, any PSU whose measure of size for males ( $MOS_{mi}$ ) exceeded 579,508/150 = 3863.38 was selected with certainty. Any PSU whose measure of size for females ( $MOS_{fi}$ ) exceeded 47,305/110 = 430.05 was selected with certainty.

It should be noted that although separate samples were selected for males and females, a form of the Keyfitz procedure was used in order to maximize the overlap between PSU's selected for the male sample and PSU's selected for the female sample.

In total, 146 PSU's were selected for the male sample and 103 PSU's were selected for the female sample. The overlap among these units was 58.



#### STAGE IIa

Within PSU selection was carried out by DMDC. On the basis of specifications provided by NORC, selected PSU's were subsampled at the rates 13.35/MOS<sub>mi</sub> for the male sample and 9.35/MOS<sub>fi</sub> for the female sample. In those instances where stage one PSU selection had been made with certainty (probability = 1) within PSU selection was carried out with sampling rates 1/289.3922 for male sample PSU's and 1/45.7495 for female sample PSU's. This sampling produced a list of 3,073 persons.

#### STAGE IIb

The sample produced at Stage IIa was systematically subsampled at a rate of one in two in order to provide 1,537 names. Prior to subsampling the Stage IIa list produced by DMDC was ordered by PSU in order to assure that all PSU's would be included in the subsample. Subsequently, an additional subsample of 256 names were selected by systematic selection from the remaining unselected names on the DMDC Stage IIa sample list.

In combination these subsamples produced a uniform stage IIb subsample rate of 1792.5/3073.

#### OVERALL SAMPLING RATES

The stages of sampling described above produced the following over all sampling rates:

f(males) = 
$$\frac{150 \text{ MOS}_{mi}}{579,508} \times \frac{13.35}{\text{MOS}_{mi}} \times \frac{1792.5}{3073} = 1/496.124$$

f(females) = 
$$\frac{110 \text{ MOS}_{fi}}{47,305} \times \frac{9.35}{\text{MOS}_{fi}} \times \frac{1792.5}{3073} = 1/78.851$$



#### DESCRIPTION OF WEIGHTING: NON-MILITARY

#### **OBJECTIVES**

Data weighting for the initial year cohort involved five basic steps. These steps were designed to accomplish the following objectives:

- 1. Correction for differential probability of selection at the initial stage of household selection.
- Correction for differential completion rates at the initial "screening phase" of data collection.
- 3. Correction for differential subsampling rates for Hispanic and Black cohort members prior to initial interview. Correction of differential completion rates among all cohort members at the first year interview stage of data collection.
- 4. Proper combination of cases obtained in the crosssectional and supplemental samples; across these samples.
- 5. Adjustment of weighted cohort sizes to conform with outside, independent Census estimates projected to January 1, 1979.

## PROCEDURES AND STEPS

1. In the initial step, weights were assigned to each completed case on the basis of the selection probability for the dwelling unit which contained the family unit where the respondent was initially located (i.e. listed). For the ith respondent, this weighting factor was

 $W_{\hat{1}\hat{1}} = 1/f_{\hat{1}}$ , where  $f_{\hat{1}}$  is the probability of selection for the dwelling unit containing the family unit where the respondent was initially listed in the screening process.

2. In this step, a cluster specific adjustment was introduced in order to compensate for differential completion rates in the family unit within dwelling unit screening process. There were 1,818 selection clusters in the entire sample (918 in the cross-sectional sample and 900 in the supplemental sample).

For the ith respondent, this adjustment factor was

Number of family units selected in the cluster containing the ith respondent

Number of family units in the ith respondent's cluster where screening information was obtained



In those instances where refusals were encountered at the dwelling unit level (i.e. it was impossible to determine whether or not there was more than one family unit within the dwelling unit), the ratio of family units to dwelling units for the remainder of the cluster was used to estimate the number of family units contained within the dwelling unit. W<sub>21</sub> was constrained to an upper limit of 1.5.

- 3. In this step adjustments were made for the additional stage of subsampling applied to Blacks and Hispanics screened in the supplemental sample prior to initial interview. In addition, adjustment factors were applied to all selected respondents to compensate for differential response rates in the first interview. These non-response adjustment factors were applied at the PSU level (102 cross-sectional PSU's and 100 supplemental PSU's) for each of the eight basic design cohorts listed below:
  - 1. Hispanic Males
  - 2. Hispanic Females
  - 3. non-Hispanic, Black Males
  - 4. non-Hispanic, Black Females
  - 5. Economically Disadvantaged, non-Hispanic, non-Black Males
  - 6. Economically Disadvantaged, non-Hispanic, non-Black Females
  - 7. Other Males
  - 8. Other Females

NOTE: All basic design cohorts, except 7 and 8, were sampled in both the cross-sectional and supplemental samples.

Thus, the step 3 weight factor for the ith respondent was

$$W_{3i} = A_{3i}/s_i ,$$

where,

Number of assigned cases with respondent i's

A<sub>31</sub> = PSU and design cohort

Number of completed cases within respondent i's PSU and design cohort

and

- s<sub>i</sub> = probability of retention in sample if ith
   respondent was in Black or Hispanic design cohort
   of supplemental sample,
  - = 1, otherwise

An upper limit of 1.5 was applied to the factor  $A_{3i}$ .



4. The purpose of this step was to rescale the weights developed in steps one, two and three for cases in design cohorts 1-6 in order to properly combine respondents from the cross-sectional and supplemental samples. Prior to this step, the supplemental and cross-sectional samples were treated as independent units.

This rescaling was carried out separately for each of the 6 design cohorts present in both the cross-sectional and supplemental samples.

Within each of the cohorts a preliminary weight was computed for each respondent within the cohort. For the ith respondent within the cohort, this preliminary weight was the product of weights developed at steps 1, 2 and 3. Specifically,

$$W_{4i} = W_{1i} \times W_{2i} \times W_{3i}$$

Within each of the cohorts separate means and standard deviations were calculated for these preliminary weights from the cross-sectional and supplemental portions of the cohort. Thus within a specified cohort

- $M_c$  = Mean of weights  $W_{41}$  from the cross-sectional portion of the cohort.
- $M_s$  = Mean of weights  $W_{41}^t$  from the supplemental portion of the cohort.
- $S_c$  = Standard deviation of weights  $W_{4i}^{\dagger}$  from the cross-sectional portion of the cohort.
- $S_s$  = Standard deviation of weights  $W_{41}^i$  from the supplemental portion of the cohort.

These means and standard deviations were used to determine the weighting efficiency factor for the cross-sectional and supplemental portions of the sample for the cohort as follows:

WEF<sub>c</sub> = 
$$\frac{1}{(1 + (M_s/S_c)^2)}$$
 = weighting efficiency factor cross-sectional portion

WEF<sub>s</sub> = 
$$\frac{1}{(1 + (M_S/S_S)^2)}$$
 = weighting efficiency factor supplemental portion

These efficiency factors were used in conjunction with the actual number of cases within the cross-sectional and supplemental portions of the cohort to determine the effective sample bases for these portions of the cohort.



Thus.

ESB = n x WEF

ESBs = ns x WEFs

where,

 $n_c$  and  $n_s$  are defined as the number of sample cases in the cross-sectional and supplemental portions of the cohort respectively. And,

ESB<sub>C</sub> and ESB<sub>S</sub> are defined as the effective sample bases for the cross-sectional and supplemental portions of the cohort respectively.

Using these effective sample bases, adjustment factors were developed for the cross-sectional and supplemental portions of the specified cohort so that the proportion of weighted cases from the crosssectional and supplemental parts of the cohort would be in the same relationship as the effective sample bases from these two parts of the total cohort.

Using the preliminary weights  $W_{4i}$ , the total sum of weights from both portions of the cohort is

$$TSW = (n_c \times M_c) + (n_s \times M_s)$$

The adjustment factor for the cross-sectional portion of the cohort was

$$A_{4c} = \frac{P_c \times TSW}{n_c \times M_c}$$
, where  $P_c = \frac{ESB_c}{ESB_{\hat{C}} + ESB_S}$ .

The adjustment factor for the supplemental portion of the cohort was

$$A_{4s} = \frac{P_s \times TSW}{n_s \times M_s}$$
, where  $P_s = \frac{ESB_s}{ESB_c + ESB_s}$ .

These adjustment factors were applied to the preliminary step 4 weights W41 to produce final step 4 weights W41.

$$W_{4i} = A_{4c} \times W_{4i}^{*}$$
, for i within cross-sectional portion,

$$W_{4i} = A_{4s} \times W_{4i}^{t}$$
, for i within supplemental portion.  
410



5. In the final step of weighting, the sum of weights from each of 64 post-strata (8 basic design cohorts x 8 age groups) was adjusted to estimates of population size derived from US Census estimates. This was accomplished by application of the adjustment factor A5, within each of the 64 post-strata as follows:

Within each of the 64 post-strata,

NSP = total population estimate developed as above.

NSS = total sum of weights  $W_{4i}$  for the cohort

 $A_5 = NSP/NSS.$ 

This factor was applied to each of the final step 4 weights to produce a final respondent weight for year one.

 $W_i = A_5 \times W_{4i}$  ( $W_i = final weight for ith respondent)$ 

As noted above the 64-post-strata were defined on the basis of the 8 basic design cohorts by 8 age groups, as follows:

## 8 DESIGN COHORTS

Males - Hispanic

Males - Black Non-Hispanic

Males - Economically Disadvantaged Non-Hispanic, Non-Black

Males - Others Females - Hispanic

Females - Black, Non-Hispanic

Females - Economically Disadvantaged, Non-Hispanic, Non-Black

Females - All others

## 2 AGE GROUPS

Single Birth Years 1957, 1958, ..., 1964

Estimates of Post-stratum size were derived as follows:

- Estimates of the Civilian Population of the U.S. were obtained by sex, single year of age and race (black, other) as of July 1, 1978 from Table 3, of Current Population Reports Series P-25, Nc.800.
- 2. By using the 13 and 21 year cohorts, these population estimates were carried forward 6 months to produce estimates of the 14 17 and 18 21 population by sex as of January 1, 1979.



3. Current Population Reports Series P-20, No.339: Persons of Spanish Origin in the United States: March, 1978 was used to estimate the number of non-Black Hispanics in each of the single year age cohorts. Current Population Reports Series P-60, No.120: Money Income and Poverty Status of Families and Persons in the United States: 1978 was used in order to estimate the number of economically disadvantaged non-Hispanics, non-Blacks in each of the single year age cohorts.



### DESCRIPTION OF WEIGHTING: MILITARY

### **OBJECTIVES**

Data weighting for the initial year in military cohort involved three basic steps designed to accomplish the following objectives.

- 1. Correction for differential probability of selection for males and females.
- 2. Correction for differential interview completion rates.
- 3. Adjustment of weighted sample size to conform to known population size by service and sex.

#### PROCEDURES AND STEPS

1. In the initial step, weights were assigned to each case on the basis of selection probability. For the ith respondent, this weighting factor was

 $W_{li} = 1/f_i$ , where  $f_i$  is the probability of selection for the ith respondent. For all males, this probability  $f_i = 1/496.124$ . For females  $f_i = 1/78.851$ .

2. In the second step a completion rate adjustment factor was calculated on a PSU by sex basis as follows:

The factor  $W_{2i}$  was constrained to an upper limit of 1.5.

 For each respondent, a preliminary step three weight was calculated by multiplication of the weights from steps one and two

$$W_{3i}^{\prime} = W_{1i} \times W_{2i}$$

These preliminary weights were then summed within 8 (4 service by 2 sex) post strata. The third step, final adjustment factors were then determined as the ratio of the actual population within the post-stratum to the sum of step three preliminary weights within the post-stratum.



A<sub>31</sub> = Population size within ith respondent's post-stratum

Sum of step three preliminary weights within ith respondent's post stratum

The final weight assigned to the ith respondent was  $W_1 = W_{11} \times W_{21} \times A_{31}$ 

It should be noted that population sizes within the 8 post strata [(ARMY, NAVY, MARINE CORPS, AND AIRFORCE) by (MALE-FEMALE)] were obtained from the list sampling frame of all persons in the armed forces as of September 30, 1978 who would be between 14 and 21 as of January 1, 1979. Although information was available which would have allowed the use of a finer level of post-stratification based upon age and race/ethnicity, this finer post-stratification was not implemented. On the basis of the sample composition, it was felt that the use of this finer post-stratification would greatly increase the amount of sampling variation without an equal decrease in total survey error (i.e., mean squared error).



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If required, population distributions can be provided which will allow for this finer post-stratification weighting.

Case #		
Label:	 	

NORC-4270 1/79

OMB 44 R-1671

NATIONAL OPINION RESEARCH CENTER University of Chicago

CENTER FOR HUMAN RESOURCE RESEARCH
Ohio State University

National Longitudinal Survey
of
Labor Force Behavior

Youth Survey, 1979

## Introduction for Youth Survey Questionnaire:

Hello, I'm (NAME) from the National Opinion Reserch Center at the University of Chicago. As you may remember, a few months ago one of our representatives came to ask some questions about your household. After that interview, you were selected by chance to be a respondent for a survey of young people that we are conducting for the Department of Labor under the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act of 1977. This survey is being done in this area and in many other areas in the country. The purpose of the survey is to collect and analyze information on the education, training, and work experience of youth in order to help solve youth's employment and unemployment problems. I would appreciate it very much if you would take some time to answer some questions about yourself, mainly about your schooling and work. We will pay you \$5 for your time.

Your participation in this survey is completely voluntary. Failure to respond will not have any effect on rights, benefits, and privileges under Federal programs. All the information you give will be protected under the Privacy Act of 1974. This means that your answers will be kept strictly confidental. Results of the study will be made public only in summary or statistical form so that individuals who participate cannot be identified.

NOTICE: ALL INFORMATION THAT WOULD PERMIT IDENTIFICATION OF RESPONDENTS OR THEIR HOUSEHOLDS WILL BE REGARDED AS STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL, WILL BE USED ONLY FOR THE PURPOSES OF THE STUDY AND WILL NOT BE DISCLOSED OR RELEASED FOR ANY OTHER PURPOSE WITHOUT PRIOR CONSENT, EXCEPT AS REQUIRED BY LAW.



AM | PM |

	SECTION I ON FAMILY BACKGROUND
	would like to begin the interview by asking you a ferestions about your family background.
1.	A. First, when were you born?
	MONTH
	B. And that makes you (R'S AGE ON HH ENUMERATION). Is that correct? (IF NECESSARY CORRECT HH ENUM.)
	ENTER R'S AGE  II
2.	A. In what country were you born?
	IN THE UNITED STATES (ASK B) IN SOME OTHER COUNTRY (SPECIFY AND GO TO Q. 3)
	IF IN THE UNITED STATES, ASK B:
	B. And where in the United States were you horn?
	RECORD TOWN OR CITY
	(IF NO TOWN OR CITY, RECORD COUNTY HERE:
	RECORD STATE:
3.	When you were a child, was any language, other than English, spoken in your home?
	Yes (ASK A)
	A. What language was that? RECORD VERBATIM AND CODE ONE ONLY.
	SPANISH
	OTHER .(SPECIFY)



4.	INTERVIE	SE WER, SEE HOUSEHOLD ENUMERATION. WHAT IS THE AGE OF THE RESPOND	C 01 ENT?
		14 YEARS OLD	
5.	Now let's age. Who	14 YEARS OLD, CODE 0. 5 WITHOUT ASKING.) s talk about when you were 14 years of ere were you living then? THAN ONE PLACE, PROBE FOR THE PLACE RESPONDENT EST WHILE AGE 14.	
		IN THE UNITED STATES . (PROBE FOR AND RECORD BELOW CITY AND STATE) 1	
		TOWN OR CITY:	
		(IF NO TOWN OR CITY, RECORD COUNTY HERE:)	
		STATE:	
		OTHER COUNTRY (PROBE FOR AND RECORD BELOW NAME OF COUNTRY) 2	
		COUNTRY:	
6.	HAND CARI describes years old	DA. Which of the categories on this card best s where you (are/were) living (when you were 14 d)?	
	It	n a town or city	
7.	with wh CODE ON "ADULT	ARD B. PLease take a look at this card and tell me hom you (are/were) living (when you were 14 years old).  NE CATEGORY FOR "ADULT WOMAN" AND ONE CATECORY FOR MAN". PROBE IF NECESSARY: And which letter in box 2) best describes who you (are/were) living with (then)?	
	·	ADULT WOMAN	
	  DE    ILEST #    TIONED   	ADULT MAN	
	-	K) SOME OTHER APRANCEMENT (ASK Q.12) 80 L) ON MY OWN (ASK Q.12) 90	

Who you yea	OE 03 OR 04 IN Q.7 ASK 0.8.  O (is/was) the adult woman (relative)  O live(d) with (when you were 14  O live(d) with is her relationship to you?  CORD VERBATIN.
(WI	DE 01,02,03, OR 04 IN 0.7, ASK 0. 9. nen you were 14 years old,) (Does/did) your (mother/step-ther/PERSON IN 0.8) work for pay?
	Yes (ASK A & B)
Α.	What kind of work (does/did) she do? RECORD VERBATIM.
	OR
	DON'T KNOW (GO TO O. 10) 998
в.	What (are/were) some of her main activities or duties? PROBE FOR TWO MAIN ACTIVITIES AND RECORD VERBATIM.
	DDE 30 OR 40 IN Q.7, ASK 0.10.
)•	Who was the adult man (relative) you live(d) with (when you were 14 years old)—what is his relationship to you? RECORD VERBATIM.
	·
.(W	DE 10, 20, 30, OR 40 IN Q.7, ASK Q.11.  nen you were 14 years old,) (Does/did) your (father/step-ther/PERSON IN Q.10) work for pay?
	Yes (ASK A & B)



	What kind of work (does/did) he do? PFCORD VERBATIM.
	OR
	DON'T KNOW (CO TO O. 13) 998
В.	What (are/were) some of his main activities or duties? PROBE FOR TWO MAIN ACTIVITIES AND RECORD VERBATIM.
	NOW SKIP TO 0. 13.
<u>sk</u>	ODE 80 OR 90 IN 0.7 OR IF BOTH 05 AND 50 ARE CODED IN 0. 7, 0. 12.  With whom (are/were) you living (when you were 14 years old)? RECORD VERBATIM.
<u> </u>	0. 12. With whom (are/were) you living (when you were
<u> </u>	With whom (are/were) you living (when you were 14 years old)? RECORD VERBATIM.  (When you were about 14 years old).(Do/did) you or anyone
A.	With whom (are/were) you living (when you were 14 years old)? RECORD VERBATIM.  (When you were about 14 years old),(Do/did) you or anyone else living with you get any magazines regularly?  Yes
A.	With whom (are/were) you living (when you were 14 years old)? RECORD VERBATIM.  (When you were about 14 years old),(Do/did) you or anyone else living with you get any magazines regularly?  Yes
B.	With whom (are/were) you living (when you were 14 years old)? RECORD VERBATIM.  (When you were about 14 years old),(Do/did) you or anyone else living with you get any magazines regularly?  Yes



	· 5°	S
14.	Some people live in the same place all of their lives,	J
	while others move from time to time. How about you-	
	have you lived here in this (city/town/county) all of your life?	
	or your life:	
	Yes (GO TO Q. 15) 1	
	No	
	A TE No. The Hilliam Library Last warms to this	
	A. IF NO: When did you last move to this (city/town/county)	
	during what year?	
	YEAR 19	
	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	
	B. <u>INTERVIEWER</u> : IS DATE IN A	
	BEFORE 1978, OR (CO TO Q. 15) 1	
	•	
	DURING 1978 OR 1979? (ASK C-E) 2	
	TE CODE O THE RESERVE OF DE	
	<pre>IF CODE 2 IN B, ASK C-F: C. In what month did you move to this (city/town/county)?</pre>	
	or in what month did you move to this (elegation)	
	ENTER MONTH	
	D. Whore did you live just before	
	D. Where did you live <u>just before</u> moving to this (city/town/county)?	
	moving to this (city) town, country).	
	IN THE UNITED STATES . (PROBE FOR	
	AND RECORD BELOW CITY AND STATE) 1	
	TOTAL OR OTTU-	
	TOWN OR CITY:	
	(IF NO TOWN OR CITY, RECORD	
	COUNTY HERE:)	
	STATE:	
	OTHER COUNTRY (PROBE FOR AND RECORD	
	BELOW NAME OF COUNTRY) 2	
	COUNTRY:	
	E. When did you last move to (PLACE RECORDED IN D ABOVE)?	
	ENTER MONTH	
	AND YEAR: 19	
	F. INTERVIEWER: IS DATE IN E	
	BEFORE 1978, OR (GO TO 0. 15) 1	
	DUDING 1070 OR 10700 (ACV C)	
	DURING 1978 OR 1979? (ASK C) 2	



IF CODE 2 IN F, ASK G:	SEC
C. You said that you last moved to (PLACE IN D) on (DATE IN E). Please give	
me a list of all the places you lived	
before that, going back to Jan. l	
of 1978. ENTER PLACES BELOW IN (1).	
FOR EACH PLACE IN (1), ASK (2): When did	
you last move to [PLACE IN (1)]?	
RECORD DATES IN (2) BELOW.	
IF DATE IN (2) IS AFTER JAN. 1, 1978, REASK:	
And where did you live just before moving to [PLACF LAST LISTED IN (1)]?	
CONTINUE ASKING (1) AND (2) UNTIL LAST DATE IN (2) IS PRIOR TO JAN. 1, 1978.	
(1) PLACES (LIST TOWN/CITY OR COUNTY AND STATE OR COUNTRY)	(2) DATES
	MONTH YEAR
	111 111
	MONTH YEAR
	111 111
	I_I_I I_I_I MONTH YEAR
Now we have a few questions about your family. First, where was your mother born?	
IN THE UNITED STATES . (PROBE FOR STATE, RECORD BELOW, AND GO TO 0.16)	1
STATE:	
OTHER COUNTRY (PROBE FOR NAME OF COUNTRY, RECORD BELOW, AND GO TO 0.16)	2
COUNTRY:	
IF VOLUNTEERED: HAVE NEVER KNOWN MY MOTHER (ANSWER A).	.3
A. IF CODE 3, INTERVIEWER: IS R'S STEP-MOTHER LISTED ON HOUSEHOLD ENUMERATION?	
YES(SKIP TO 0. 19)	1
NO(SKIP TO O. 21)	2
421	



15.

-7-

16. What was the highest grade or year of regular school that your mother ever completed? CIRCLE ONE CODE BELOW.
NONE00 1ST GRADE01 1ST YEAR OF COLLEGE13 2ND GRADE02 2ND YEAR OF COLLEGE14 3RD GRADE03 3RD YEAR OF COLLEGE15 4TH GRADE04 4TH YEAR OF COLLEGE16 5TH GRADE05 5TH YEAR OF COLLEGE17 6TH GRADE06 6TH YEAR OF COLLEGE18 7TH GRADE07 7TH YEAR OF COLLEGE19 8TH GRADE08 8TH YEAR OF COLLEGE20 9TH GRADE09 10TH GRADE10 11TH GRADE12
17. INTERVIEWER, SEE HOUSEHOLD ENUMERATION.  IS R'S MOTHER OF STEP-MOTHER LISTED THERE?
YES
18. Is your mother living at this time?
Yes
19. Last year, that is, during 1978, did your (mother/ step-mother) work for pay all of the year, part of the year, or not at all?
All of the year (ASK A-C)
IF ALL OR PART OF THE YEAR, ASK A - C:
A. What kind of work was she doing? IF MORE THAN ONE KIND OF WORK PROBE: During 1978, what kind of work did she do the longest?
RECORD VERBATIM:
B. What were some of her main activities or duties? PROBE FOR TWO MAIN DUTIES AND RECORD VERBATIM.
C. In the weeks that your (mother/step-mother) worked, how many hours per week did she work-35 hours or more or less than 35 hours?
35 hours or more



20.	INTERVIEWER: DOES R LIVE SEPARATELY FROM HIS/HER (MOTHER/STEP-MOTHER)?	SEC
	YES	
	A. IF YES: How many miles away from here does your mother live?	
	- -   - - -  ENTER # OF MILES  _    ,   _ - -	
21.	Where was your father horn?	
	IN THE UNITED STATES . (PROBE FOR STATE, RECORD BELOW, AND GO TO 0.22) 1	
	STATE:	
	OTHER COUNTRY (PROBE FOR NAME OF COUNTRY, RECORD BELOW, AND GO TO Q.22) 2	
	COUNTRY:	
	IF VOLUNTEERED: HAVE NEVER KNOWN MY FATHER (ANSWER A) 3	
	A. <u>INTERVIEWER</u> : IF CODE 3, IS R'S STEP-FATHER LISTED ON HOUSEHOLD ENUMERATION?	
	YES(SKIP TO 0. 26)	
22.	And where was your father's <u>father</u> born in the United States or some other country?	
	In the United States 1	
	In some other country	
	(SPECIFY)2	
	DON'T KNOW 8	
23.	Let's go hack to your father now. What was the highest grade or year of regular school that your father ever completed? CIRCLE ONE CODE BELOW.	
	NONE	
	1ST GRADE01 1ST YEAR OF COLLEGE13	
	2ND GRADE02 2ND YEAR OF COLLEGE14	
	3RD GRADE03 3RD YEAR OF COLLEGE15	
	4TH GRADE04 4TH YEAR OF COLLEGE16	
	5TH GRADE05 5TH YEAR OF COLLEGE17	
	6TH GRADE06 6TH YEAR OF COLLEGE18 7TH GRADE07 7TH YEAR OF COLLEGE 19	
	Company of Company of	
	STH GRADE08 STH YEAR OF COLLEGE20 9TH GRADE09	
	10TH GRADE10	
	11TH GRADE11	
	10TH ONDE 10	

INTERVIEWER, SEE HOUSEHOLD ENUMERATION.  IS R's FATHER OR STEP-FATHER LISTED THERE?
YES(SKIP TO 0. 26) 1
NO 2
25. Is your father living at this time?
Yes 1
No(SKIP TO 0. 28) 2
26. Last year, that is, during 1978, did your (father/ step-father) work for p all of the year, part of the year, or not at all?
All of the year (ASK A-C)
IF ALL OR PART OF THE YEAR, ASK A - C:  A. What kind of work was he doing? IF MORE THAN ONE KIND OF WORK PROBE: During 1978, what kind of work did he do the longest?
RECORD VERBATIM:
B. What were some of his main activities or duties? PROBE FOR TWO MAIN DUTIES AND RECORD VERBATIM.
C. In the weeks that your (rather/step-father) worked, how many hours fer week did he work35 hours or more or less than 35 hours?
35 hours or more
Less than 35 hours 2
DON'T KNOW 8
27. INTERVIEWER: DOES R LIVE SEPARATELY FROM HIS/HER FATHER OR STEP-FATHER?
YES (ANSWER A)
NO(CO TO 0. 28)



n.	DID YOU DO A HOUSEHOLD ENUMERATION FOR THIS RESPONDENT ON A VERSION A, VERSION B, OR VERSION C
	VERSION A(GO TO D)1
	VERSION B(ANSWER B)2
	VERSION C(GO TO C)3
В.	IF VERSION B: INTERVIEWER, WHO IS LISTED ON THE HOUSEHOLD ENUMERATION, VERSION B?
	R'S (MOTHER/STEP-MOTHER) AND R'S (FATHER/STEP-FATHER) (GO TO Q. 28) 1
	R'S (MOTHER/STEP-MOTHER)(GO TO D) 2
	R'S (FATHER/STEP-FATHER)(GO TO D) 3
	NE ~ 4
c.	Do your mother and father live in the same household?
	Yes(GO TO O. 28)
	R IS IN MILITARY OVERSEAS, DO NOT ASK D. How many miles away from here does your father live?
	'   ENTER # OF MILES
	would like to ask you a few questions about any brothers sisters you may have.
(	ow many (living) brothers and sisters do you have?  IF R IS NOT SURE WHO TO CONSIDER AS BROTHERS OR SISTERS,  IRCLE CODE HERE AND SAY: Please think of whomever you onsider as your brothers and sisters.)
	ENTER NUMBER 1_1_1
	OR NOME (SKIP TO 0. 30) 00
	How many of them are currently attending or enrolled in regular school?
	I I I ENTER NUMBER I I I I OR NONE • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
C.	How many of your brothers and sisters are older than you?      ENTER NUMBER
	OR



28.

29. A. How old is your oldest (living) brother or sister? 1--1--1 ENTER AGE 1 1 1 What is the highest grade or year of regular school that (he/she) has ever completed? CIRCLE ONE CODE BELOW NONE......00 1ST GRADE.....01 1ST YEAR OF COLLEGE...13 2ND GRADE.....02 2ND YEAR OF COLLEGE...14 3RD GRADE......03 3RD YEAR OF COLLEGE...15 4TH GRADE.....04 4TH YEAR OF COLLEGE...16 5TH GRADE......05 5TH YEAR OF COLLEGE...17 6TH CRADE.....06 6TH YEAP OF COLLEGE...18 7TH YEAR OF COLLEGE...19 8TH GRADE.....08 8TH YEAR OF COLLEGE...20 9TH GRADE.....09 10TH GRADE.....10 11TH GRADE.....11 12TH GRADE.....12 30. HAND CARD C. What is your origin or descent? ALL THAT APPLY. Black, Afro-American, or Negro . . . 01 02 03 04 05 06 07 Hawaiian or Pacific Islander 08 Indian-American, or Native American Ŋ٩ 10 11 12 13 14 Latino or Spanish Descent 15 16 Mexican or Mexicano. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 17 18 Puerto Rican, Puertorriqueno, or Borincano 19 Other Latino, Hispano, or Latin-American 20 21 22 23 24 25 Vietnamese . . . . . . . . . . . . . 26 Welsh ... 27 Other (SPECIFY) 28 IF VOLUNTEERED: American ......

NONE ....

29

00



1. You said	ONE CODED IN Q.30, ASK	scent was (READ CATEGORIES
CODED IN	o. 30). Which one of	these do you feel <u>closest</u> t
	FNTER CODE	
	FNTER CODE. 1	'
and now a few	questions about your	religious background.
and now a rew	que ne como anome y em	
32. First. in	what religion were yo	ou raised? RECORD VERBATIM
AND CODE	ONE ONLY. IF "PROTEST	TANT" OR "CHRISTIAN", PROBE:
	mination was that, if	
mile army		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
PROT	ESTANT, "CHRISTIAN", !	NO DENOMINATION
YN	OUN, OR NON-DENGMINAT	IONAL CHURCH 001
	•	
R.A	PTIST	
EF	ISCOPALIAN	
LI	THERAN	
115	THODIST	
PF	FSBYTERIAN	
		_
ROMA	N CATHOLIC	
		000
1711	CII	

OTHER (SPECIFY) \_\_\_\_\_\_O09



33. What is your present religion, if any? RECORD VERBATIM AND CODE ONE ONLY. IF "PROTESTANT" OR "CHRISTIAN", PROBE: What denomination is that, if any?

	PROTES	STAN	Τ,	"CI	IR I	ST	[AN	۳,	N	10	DE	N	M	[N/	AT I	[0]	N		
	KNOV	IN,	OR	NOI	<b>1–</b> D	EN(	IMC	NA	TI	ON	IAL	. (	CHI	JRO	CH	•	•	•	001
	BAP?	rist	•			•				•			•	•		•	•		002
	EPIS	SCOP	ALI	AN	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		003
	LUT	<del>IE</del> RA	N.			•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	004
	METI	IODI	ST			•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	. •	•	•	•	005
	PRES	SBYT	ERI	AN	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	006
	ROMAN	CAT	HOL	ıc	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	007
	JEWISi	₹ .	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	008
	OTHER OR	(S	PEC	IF	()	_								_	_			_	009
	NONE,	NO	REL	IG	ION	•													000
HAND	CARD I	<b>)</b> .	In	the	e p	<b>a</b> s(	t y	'e a	ır,	, a	bc	ou t	t 1	101	<b>i</b> (	oft	ter	1 !	have
you than time	CARD I attende once a s a mon	ed rawe	In eli ek, ab	the gio	e pous	asi se t o	t y erv onc	ea ic e	r, es	e we	bc  eek	mc	t l	nov e vo	01	r t	thi	ce	<b>e</b>
you than time	CARD I	od rawenth,	In eli ek, ab	the gio al out	e pous pous pou t o	asi se t o nce	t y erv once a t	ea ic e m	es a or	we	eek	m( , Se	t P tv	nov e vo era	01 al	r t	thi Ime	ce:	<b>e</b>
you than time	CARD I attende once a s a mon	ed rawenth, year	In eli ek, ab	the gio al out or	ous oou oou no	asi to nco ta	t y erv once a at	rea ric e e al	es a or 1?	we	eek	m( , se	t l tv	nov e vo erv	o1 a1	r t	thi lme	re:	or
you than time	CARD I	ed rawenth, year	In eli ek, ab r,	the gio	e pous pous pou no no	asi se t co nce t a a	t yervonce a	ea ic e al	es a ior .1?	we	eek	m(C,	ti l	nov	01 al	r (	thi		e or 6
you than time	CARD I attended once a s a morning the More	ed rawenth, year that or	In eli ek, abr, an ence	the gio	pous pous pou t o no ce we	asi t once t a a w	t yervonce ast	rea ic e al	es a ior 1?	we nth	eek	mc, se	ty ty	novers	•	r t	ime		e or 6

# SECTION 2 ON MARITAL HISTORY

1)	Are you presently married, widowed, divorced, separated, or have you never been married?
	Presently married 1
	Widowed 2
	Divorced
	Separated 4
	Never marriedincluding annulments (SKIP TO SECTION 3) 5
2)	(Including your present marriage,) how many times, altogether, have you ever been married?
	ENTER NUMBER 1_1_1
ASK 3)	ONLY IF TWO OR MORE IN Q.2, OTHERS GO TO 0.4:  A. What was the date of your first marriage?
	 ENTER MONTH
	B. And during what month and year did your first marriage end?
	111   FNTER MONTH
(IN	0.4-9, READ THE PHRASE "MOST RECENT" IN PAPENTHESIS.)
4)	What was the date of your (most recent) marriage?
	I!  ENTER MONTH
5)	When was your (most recent)(husband/wife) born?
	 ENTER MONTH
6)	INTERVIEWER, SEE 0.1 AND CODE BELOW:
	P IS PRESENTLY MARPIED OR WIDOWED  (GO TO 0.7)
	P IS DIVORCED OR SEPARATED, [READ:  "At the time of your (divorce/separation,)"  AND CO TO 0.71



7)	ele tha	SI at was the highest grade of regular schoolthat is, ementary school, high school, college, or graduate school at your (most recent)(husband/wife) ever completed? RCLE ONE CODE BELOW.	E(
-	1	NONE	
8)	1 <u>N</u> 7	TERVIEWER, SEE Q.1 AND CODE ONE BELOW:	
		P IS PRESENTLY MARRIED [READ: "During 1978" AND CO ON TO 0.9] 1	
		R IS PRESENTLY WIDOWED [READ: "During the last year (he/ she) worked" AND GO TO 0.9]	
		R IS DIVORCED OR SEPARATED [READ:  "During the last year you were (married to/ living with) (him/her)" AND GO ON TO 0.9]	
9)	Α.	What kind of work did your (most recent)(husband/wife) do? RECORD VERBATIM.  IF MORE THAN ONE OCCUPATION, PROBE FOR AND RECORD WORK DONE THE LONGEST DURING THAT PERIOD.	
		PROBE: What were (his/her) main activities or duties? PROBE FOR TWO MAIN DUTIES, RECORD VERBATIM, AND GO TO 0.10.	
		OR DID NOT WORK DURING THAT PERIOD(ASK B) 995 OR DON'T KNOW(GO TO 0. 10) 998	
		-09	

В.	IF DID NOT WORK DURING THAT PERIOD, ASY: What kind of work (does/did) (he/she) usually do? RECORD VERBATIM.
	PROBE: What were (his/her) main activities or duties? PROBE FOR TWO MAIN DUTIES AND RECORD VERBATIM.
	OR.
	NEVER WORKED 995
	NOW SKIP TO Q. 11
10. <u>I</u>	NTERVIEWER, SEE Q. 1 AND CODE BELOW:
	R IS PRESENTLY MARRIED (ASK A & B) . 1
	ALL OTHERS (CO TO 0. 11) 2
1	F R IS PRESENTLY MARRIED, ASK A & B:  During 1978, how many weeks did your (husband/wife) work at all jobs, either full- or part-time, not counting work around the house?
	 ENTER # OF WEEKS   _
В	In the weeks your (husband/wife) worked, how many hours did (he/she) usually work per week?
	 ENTER # OF HOURS
11) <u>IN</u>	TERVIEWER: WAS ANSWER IN O. 1 CODED
	PRESENTLY MARRIED, (SKIP TO SECTION 3) . 1 WIDOWED, . (ASK Q.12)
	12 IF WIDONED: uring what month and year did your (husband/wife) die?
	ENTER MONTH
	NOW SKIP TO AND YEAR: 19     SECTION 3

ASK Q.13 IF DIVORCED:

13) When did your (most recent) marriage end, that is, during what month and year did the divorce become final?

	111	
ENTER MONTH	1_1_1	
	111	NOW SKIP TO
AND YEAR: 19	1 1 1	SECTION 3

ASK Q.14 IF SEPARATED:

14) When did your present separation begin, that is, during what month and year did you stop ENTER MONTH living together? AND YEAR: 19 |



# SECTION 3 ON FERTILITY

Now I'd like to ask you your opinions and expectations about family size.
1) A. First, what do you think is the ideal number of children fo a family?
ENTER # OF CHILDREN II_I
B. How many children do you want to have?
ENTER # OF CHILDREN
2) Have you ever had any children?
Yes (ASK A) 1 No(GO TO Q. 3) 2
IF YES, ASK A & B:  A. How many children, altogether, have  IF FEMALE RESPONDENT: you ever given birth to  IF MALE RESPONDENT: you ever had  at any time, not counting babies who were dead at birth?
ENTER # OF CHILDREN
B. When was your (first/second/ETC.) child born?
MONTH DAY YFAR          19     FIRST CHILD
FIRST CHILD
THIRD
FOURTH
FIFTH
SIXTH
3) Altogether, how many (more) children do you expect to have?
FNTER # 111  11
OR
NONE (SKIP TO SECTION 4) 00
4) When do you expect to have your (first/next) child in how many months or years?
I!I ENTEP MONTHS II_I OR
 YEARS



#### SECTION 4 ON REGULAR SCHOOLING

- 1. Now I would like to ask you some questions about school.
  - A. First, I would like to ask you about regular school, such as high school or college. Later in the interview I'll be asking about other types of schools and training programs.

Are you <u>currently</u> attending or enrolled in <u>regular</u> school, that is, in an elementary school, a middle school, a high school, a college, or a graduate school?

- B. CODE O. 1 ON CALENDAR.
- 2. A. What grade or year of school is that? CIRCLE ONE CODE BELOW.

1ST GRADE01	1ST	YEAR	OF	COLLEGE13
2ND GRADE02	2ND	YEAR	OF	COLLEGE14
3RD CRADE03	3RD	YEAR	0F	COLLEGE15
4TH GRADE04	4TH	YEAR	OF	COLLEGE16
5TH GRADE05	5TH	YEAR	OF	COLLEGE17
6TH GRADE06	6TH	YEAR	OF	COLLEGE18
7TH CRADE07	7TH	YEAR	OF	COLLEGE19
8TH CRADE08	8TH	YEAR	OF	COLLEGE20
9TH GRADE09				
10TH GRADE10				
11TH GRADE11				
12TH GRADE12				

- B. ALSO SPECIFY GRADE AT O. 1 ON CALENDAR
- 3. INTERVIEWER: IS RESPONDENT IN CRADES 1-12 (0.2 CODED 1-12)?

Yes...(ASK A & B) .....1 No...(SKIP TO 0.6) ... 2



# IF CURPENTLY ENROLLED IN GRADES 1-12, ASK A & B:

A. There are many things that people might say to describe their schools. I am going to read some statements that other people have made about their schools, and I would like to know how well you think these statements describe your school.

HAND CARD F. As I read each statement, tell me whether you think the statement is very true, somewhat true, not too true, or not at all true for your school.

	STATEMENT	Very True	Somewhat True	Not Too True	Not at All True
l.	It's easy to make friends at this school.	1	2	3	4
2.	Most of the teachers are willing to help with personal problems.	1	2	3	4
3.	Most of my classes are horing.	1	2	3	4
4.	I don't feel safe at this school.	1	2	3	4
5.	Most of my teachers really know their subjects well.	1	2	3	4
6.	You can get away with almost anything at this school.	1	2	3	4
7.	My schoolwork requires me to think to the best of my ability.	1	2	3	4
8.	At this school, a person has the freedom to learn what interest him or her.		2	3	4
9.	This school offers goo job counseling.	d 1	2	3	4

B. How satisfied are you with your school -- very satisfied somewhat satisfied, somewhat dissatisfied, or very dissatisfied?

Very satisfic	ed		 •			.4
Somewhat sat:	isfied					.3
Somewhat diss	satisfi	.ed		• •	 	. 2
Very dissati	sified				 	. 1

I NOW SKIP TO Q.6 I



	S
IF RESPONDENT NOT CURRENTLY ENROLLS 4. A. When were you last enrolled	ED (0.1 CODED 2), ASK QS. 4 & 5. d in regular schoolwhat was
the month and year?	
	111
MONTH	
AND	
YEAR 19	111
IF VOLUNTEERED: Never enrolle	d(SKIP TO 0.30)0000
B. ENTER DATE AT Q. 2 ON CALE	NDAR.
5. What is the main reason you 1 CODE ONE ONLY. IF MORE THAN 0 one main reason?	eft at that time? RECORD VERBATIM AND NE REASON GIVEN, PROBE: What is the
RECEIVED DECREE, C	COMPLETED COURSE-WORK01
EXPELLED OR SUSPEN	NDED10
GETTING MARRIED	02
PREGNANCY	
SCHOOL TOO DANGERO	DUS11
LACK OF ABILITY. 1	POOR CRADES05
OTHER REASONS DID	N'T LIKE SCHOOL04
	TIES06
OFFERED COOD JOB,	CHOSE TO WORK07
FINANCIAL DIFFICUI	LTIES, COULDN'T AFFORD TO
ATTEND	08
ENTERED MILITARY	09
MOVED AWAY FROM SO OTHER (SPECIFY)	CHOOL12
•	a) and the first of
IF R IS CURRENTLY ENROLLED (SEE O	. 2), CODE IN (). 6 BELOW
YEAR ENPOLLED WITHOUT ASKING AND	<u>co ro Q. 7.</u>
	monular school you have ever
6. What is the highest grade of	regular school you have ever
attended? CIRCLE ONE CODE B	r.L(W•
1015 (0175 TO 0 20) 00	
NONE.(SKIP TO 0.30).00	1ST YEAR OF COLLEGE13
1ST CRADE01	2ND YEAR OF COLLEGE14
2ND GRADE02	3PD YEAR OF COLLEGE15
3RD GRADE03	4TH YEAR OF COLLEGE16
4TH GRADE04	5TH YEAR OF COLLEGE17
5TH CRADE05	6TH YEAR OF COLLEGE18
6TH GRADE06	7TH YEAR OF COLLEGE19
7TH GRADE07	8TH YEAR OF COLLEGE20
8TH GRADE08	OTH TEMP OF CONDUCTION



9TH GRADE.....09 10TH GRADE.....10 11TH GRADE.....11 12TH CRADE.....12

•	you have completed and got credit for? CIRCLE ONE CODE BELOW.
	NONE00 1ST GRADE01 1ST YEAR OF COLLEGE13 2ND GRADE02 2ND YEAR OF COLLEGE14
	3RD GRADE03 3RD YEAR OF COLLEGE15
	4TH GRADE04 4TH YEAR OF COLLEGE16
	5TH CRADE05 5TH YEAR OF COLLEGE17
	6TH CRADE06 6TH YEAR OF COLLEGE18
	7TH CRADE07 7TH YEAR OF COLLEGE19
	8TH GRADE08 8TH YEAR OF COLLEGE20
	9TH GRADE09
	10TH GRADE10
	11TH GPADE11
	12TH GRADE12
ASK 8.	O. 8 FOR THE SCHOOL R (ATTENDS/LAST ATTENDED) FOR CRADES 1-12: What is the name of the (regular/high) school you (currently attend/last attended)?
9.	Where is that school locatedwhat is the town or city and state?
	IF IN THE UNITED STATES, PROBE FOR AND RECORD INFORMATION IN A:
	TOWN OR CITY
	STATE
	IF NO TOWN OR CITY IN A, ASK B: B. And in what county is that?
	COUNTY
	IF OUTSIDE THE UNITED STATES, RECORD NAME OF COUNTRY IN C.
	C. COUNTRY:
	D. INTERVIEWER: IF SCHOOL IS IN YOUR AREA, LOOK UP AND ENTER STREET ADDRESS AND ZIP CODE DURING YOUR EDIT. OTHERWISE, ASK R FOR THIS INFORMATION.
	STREET ADDRESS



	- 23-
10.	Is that a public school, or is it a private or parochial school? CODE ONE ONLY.
	Publicl Private or parochial2
11.	When did you start going to school therein what month and year? ENTER HERE.
	 MONTH
	AND YEAR 19
12.	INTERVIEWER SEE Q.2: IS RESPONDENT CURRENTLY ENROLLED IN GRADES 1-12 (Q. 2 CODED 1-12)?
	YES(SKIP TO 0.15)1 NO2
13.	INTERVIEWER: IS THE HIGHEST GRADE R ATTENDED GRADES 1-12? (SEE 0. 6)
	YES (COPY DATE FROM O. 4
	INTO "A" BELOW WITHOUT
	ASKING AND CO TO Q. 14) 1
	NO 2
	A. When did you stop going to school there or graduate? ENTER HERE.
	111
	MONTH 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
	AND YEAR 19
14.	Do you have a high school diploma or have you ever passed a high school equivalency or GED test?
	Yes(ASK A & B)
	IF YES, ASK A & B: A. Which do you have, a high school diploma or a GED?
	High school diploma 1
	GED
	IF VOL.: Both(ASK B REGARDING HIGH SCHOOL DIPLOMA)
	B. When did you receive your (high school diploma/C.E.D.)?
	MONTH 1 423
	AND YEAR 191 1 1



15.	<u>INTERVIEUER</u> : IS RESPONDENT CUPRETTLY EXPOLLED IN CPADES 9-12?
	YFS(PEAD 0.16A)1 NO(ASK A)2
	m
	A. IF NO: HAS RESPONDENT ATTENDED 9th CRADE OF HIGHER?
	YES(PEAD O. 16B)1 NO(SKIP TO 0.30)2
16.	A.IF CURRENTLY ENROLLED IN CRADES 9-12 READ: What courses
	are you taking this year? Please include all the courses you have taken since the beginning of the school year.
	B. IF NOT CURRENTLY ENROLLED IN 9-12: What courses did you take in your last year at (SCHOOL IN C. 8)? Please include
	all of the courses you took during that year.
17.	Do you feel that your program (is/was) largely vocational,
	commercial, college preparatory, or (is/was) it a general
	program?
	Vocational1
	Commercial2
	College preparatory(SKIP TO 0.21)3 General program(SKIP TO 0.21)4
	DON'T KNOW(SKIP TO 0.21)8
1 0	A. HAND CARD F. Please take a look at this card. Which
1()	of the categories listed here best describes the kire of
	(vocational/commercial) program that (is/was)?
	CODE ONE ONLY.
	Agricultural 1
	Business or office 2
	Business or office 2
	Distributive education 3
	Health 4
	Home economics 5
	Trade or industrial 6
	Other (SPECIFY) 7
	B. What job (are/were) you training for? RECORD VERBATIM.



	23	SEC 04
19.	INTERVIEWER: IS RESPONDENT CURRENTLY ENROLLED IN GRADES 9-12 (Q.2 CODED 9-12)?	
	YES(SKIP TO 0.30)1 NO2	
20.	Did you get a job as a (JOB IN O. 18B) within 6 months after you (left/completed) high school?	
	Yes(ASK A) 1 No(ASK B) 2	
	A. IF YES: Did you have any problems getting that kind of job?	
	Yes(ASK [1])	
	(1) IF ANY PROBLEMS: What kinds of problems did you have? PROBE ONCE: What other kinds of problems did you have? RECORD VERBATIM AND CODE ALL THAT APPLY.	
	JOBS SCARCE IN THIS FIELD	
	B. IF NO: Why didn't you get that kind of job? PROBE ONCE: What other reasons were there? RECORD VERBATIM AND CODE ALL THAT A	
	COULDN'T FIND A JOB IN THIS FIELD 01 DIDN'T LOOK FOR A JOB IN THIS FIELD 02	
	PREFERRED A JOB IN A DIFFERENT FIELD 03	
	WENT ON FOR ADDITIONAL SCHOOLING 04	
	DIDN'T FINISH THE PROGRAM	
	INSUFFICIENT TRAINING OR EXPERIENCE 06	
	DIDN'T KNOW WHERE TO LOOK 07	
	HEALTH PROBLEMS	
	OTHER (SPECIFY) $440$ 09	



21.	INTERVIEWER: SEE Q.6. WHAT IS THE HIGHEST GRADE RESPONDENT HAS ATTENDED?
	1 to 12TH GRADE (SKIP TO Q.30) 1
	1st YEAR OF COLLEGE OR HICHER(CHECK BOX AT Q. 3 ON CALEND'R AND GO ON TO Q. 22) 2
22.	After you complete high school, when did you first attend collegein what month and year?
	1     MONTH           1     AND YEAR   19
23.	Now I would like to ask you about the degree-granting college or university you (are attending/last attended).
	A. What is the name of the college or university you (are presently attending/last attended)?
	P. Where is that school locatedwhat is the town or city and state?
	TOWN OR CITY
	STATE
	IF NO TOWN OR CITY, ASK:  And in what county is that?
	COUNTY
	IF OUTSIDE THE UNITED STATES, RECORD COUNTRY:
	C. (Is/Was) that a 2 year or a 4 year school?
	2 year 1
	4 year 2
	D. What (is/was) your field of study? RECORD VERBATIM. PROBE IF NECESSARY: What (are/were) you majoring in?



	<b>4</b> /	SF
24.	INTERVIEWER: IS R CURRENTLY ENROLLED IN COLLEGE? (SEE O. 1)	
	YES(GO TO O. 25) 1	
	NO 2	
	A. IF NO, INTERVIEWER: SEE Q. 4. WAS THE DATE R WAS LAST ENROLLED IN REGULAR SCHOOL AFTER SEPT. 1, 1978?	
	YES 1	
	NO(SKIP TO Q. 29) 2	
25.	(Does/Did) the school you attend(ed) consider you a full or a part-time student? IF DON'T KNOW, PROBE: What (do/did) you consider yourself?.	
	Full time student1	
	Part time student2	
	DON'T KNOW8	
26.	What (are/were) the full time tuition and fees for this academic year at the school where you (are currently/were) enrolled? Please include the <u>full</u> amount even though you (may obtain/may have obtained) some of the money from scholarships or other sources. Do not include charges for room and board.	
	IF R ENROLLED PART-TIME, PROBE: Even though you (are/were) not enrolled full-time, please tell me what the tuition and fees (would be/would have been) if you were going full-time.	
27.	TUITION AND FEES \$	)
	Yesl	

28. (Are/Were) you receiving any (other) form of financial aid for the academic year, such as a scholarship, a grant, a fellowship, an assistantship, a tuition waiver, or veteran's educational benefits under the G.I. Fill or V.F.A.P.?

Yes...(ASY A)......1 No...(GO TO O. 29)...2

A. IF YES: We would like to know which kinds of financial aid you (have/had). [First, (do/did) you have/Next, (do/did) you (also) have] (READ EACH CATEGORY). CODE YES OR NO FOR EACH.

Yes	No
l) a scholarship? 1	2
2) a grant? 1	2
3) a fellowship? 1	2
4) an assistantship? 1	2
5) a tuition waiver? 1	2
6) Any veteran's educational benefits or V.E.A.P.?l	2
7) Any aid from the military educational assistance program?	2
8) Any other form of financial aid? 1	2
IF YES TO 8, SPECIFY BELOW.	

<sup>79. (</sup>During this school year/In the last year you attended college), (do/did) any relatives or friends [(other than your (husband/wife)] help pay for your schooling or your living expenses?

Yes ...(ASK.A)....1 No ..(GO TO 0.30)..2

A. IF YES: Now much of your schooling and living expenses (do/did) they pay? Would you say that they (pay/paid) all of your expenses, half or more of your expenses, or less than half of your expenses?

All ...........1
Half or more ...2
Less than half .3



### ASK EVERYONE:

30. What is the highest grade or year of regular school, that is, elementary school, high school, college, or graduate school that you would like to complete?

CIRCLE ONE CODE BELOW.

1ST GRADE01	1ST YEAR OF COLLEGE13
2ND GRADE02	2ND YEAR OF COLLEGE
3RD GRADE03	(ASSOCIATE'S DEGREE) 14
4TH GRADE04	3RD YEAR OF COLLEGE15
5TH CRADE	4TH YEAR OF COLLECE
6TH GRADE06	(BACHELOR'S DEGREE) 16
7TH GRADE07	5TH YEAR OF COLLEGE
8TH GRADE08	(MASTER'S DEGREE) 17
9TH CRADE09	MORE THAN 5 YEARS OF
10TH GRADE10	COLLEGE(LAW DEGREE,
11TH GRADE11	Ph.D., M.D., LLD,
12TH GRADE12	DDS, JD)

31. As things now stand, what is the highest grade or year you think you will <u>actually</u> complete? CIRCLE ONE CODE BELOW.

```
1ST GRADE.....01
                          1ST YEAR OF COLLEGE...13
2ND YEAR OF COLLEGE
3RD GRADE.....03
                          (ASSOCIATE'S DEGREE) 14
4TH GRADE.....04
                          3RD YEAR OF COLLEGE...15
5TH GRADE......05
                          4TH YEAR OF COLLEGE
6TH GRADE......06
                          (BACHELOR'S DECREE)
7TH CRADE.....07
                          5TH YEAR OF COLLEGE
8TH GRADE.....08
                          (MASTER'S DEGREE)..
MORE THAN 5 YEARS OF
10TH GRADE.....10
                          COLLEGE .. (LAW DEGREE.
11TH GRADE......11
                          Ph.D., M.D., LLD,
12TH GRADE.....12
```

32. Now think about your best or closest friend. What is the highest grade or year of regular school that this friend wants to complete? CIRCLE ONE CODE BELOW.

1ST GRADE01	1ST YEAR OF COLLEGE13
2ND GRADE02	2ND YEAR OF COLLEGE
3RD GRADE03	(ASSOCIATE'S DEGREE) 14
4TH GRADE04	3RD YEAR OF COLLEGE15
STH GRADE05	4TH YEAR OF COLLEGE
6TH GRADE06	(BACHELOR'S DEGREE) 16
7TH GRADE07	5TH YEAR OF COLLEGE
8TH GRADE08	(MASTER'S DEGREE) 17
9TH GRADE09	MORE THAN 5 YEARS OF
10TH GRADE10	COLLEGE (LAW DEGREE,
11TH GRADE11	Ph.D., M.D., LLD,
12TH GRADE12	DDS, JD)



2. INTERVIEWER: SEE 0.1, SECTION 4. IS RESPONDENT CURRENTLY ENROLLED IN REGULAR SCHOOL (0.1 CODED 1)?

- A. IF CURRENTLY ENROLLED: If next summer you were offered a full-time job at (READ AMOUNT), do you think you would accept it ...READ CATEGORIES a-g.
- B. IF NOT CURRENTLY ENROLLED: If right now you were offered a full-time job at (READ AMOUNT), do you think you would accept it ... READ CATEGORIES a-g.

	READ a-g FOR COLUMN 1 BEFORE COING TO COLUMN 2	COLUM \$2.50 Yes	/Hr	COLUMN \$3.50/H Yes M	Hr s5	LIMN 3 .OO/Hr
a•	if it were washing dishes?	1	2	1	2	1 2
ъ.	<pre>if it were working in a factory?</pre>	1	2	1	2	1 2
с.	if it were working as a cleaning person?	1	2	1	2	1 2
d.	<pre>if it were working at a check-out counter in a supermarket?</pre>	1	2	1	2	1 2
e.	if it were working cleaning up neighbor-hoods?	1	2	1	2	1 2
f.	if it were working at a hamburger place?	1	2	1	2	1 2
g•	if it were working away from home in a national forest or a park?	1	2	1	2	1 2

h. INTERVIEWER: FOR EVERY "YES" IN COLUMN 1, DRAW A LINE ACROSS ROW. IF COLUMN 1 IS CODED "YES" FOR ALL ITEMS a-g, GO TO SECTION 6. OTHERS, GO TO COLUMN 2 FOR REMAINING ITEMS. DRAW A LINE ACROSS ROW FOR EVERY "YES" IN COLUMN 2. IF ALL ITEMS a-g ARE NOW LINED OUT, GO TO SECTION 6. OTHERS GO TO COLUMN 3 FOR REMAINING ITEMS.



## SECTION 6 ON KNOWLEDGE OF AND EXPERIENCES WITH THE WORLD OF WORK

1.	Next I'd like your opinion about the kind of work that people in certain jobs usually do. For each occupation on this card (HAND CARD BOOKLET 1 TO RESPONDENT) there are three descriptions of job duties. Will you please tell me which description you think best fits each job? Be sure to read all of the possible answers before you decide.
	a. Hospital orderly
	helps to take care of hospital patientsl
	orders food and other supplies for hospital kitchens2
	works at hospital desk where patients check in
	DON'T KNOW8
	b. Department store buyer
	selects the items to be sold in a section of a department storel
	checks on the courtesy of sales people by shopping at the store2
	buys department stores that are about to go out of business
	DON'T KNOW8
	c. Key punch operator
	operates a machine which sends telegramsl
	operates a machine which punches holes in cards used in computers2
	operates a cordless telephone switchboard

and pushes switch keys to make

telephone connections......3

DON'T KNOW.....8



d.	Fork	lift operator
		operates a machine that makes a certain kind of agricultural tooll
		operates a freight elevator in a warehouse or factory2
		drives an electrical or gas powered machine to move material in a warehouse or factory3
		DON'T KNOW8
e.	Medic	cal illustrator
		hands tools and equipment to a surgeon during an operationl
		demonstrates the use of various types of medicines2
		draws pictures that are used to teach anatomy and surgical operating procedures
		DON'T KNOW8
f.	Machi	nist
		makes adjustments on automobile, airplane, and tractor engines
		repairs electrical equipment2
		sets up and operates metal lathes, shapers, grinders, buffers, etc3
		DON'T KNOW8
g.	Dieti	cian
		waits on tables in a restaurantl
		suggests exercises for persons who are overweight or sick2
		plans menus for hospitals and schools3
		DON'T KNOW



#### h. Economist...

prepare or othe	s menus in a hospital, hotel r such establishmentl
do <b>es re</b> bu <b>s</b> ines	search on such matters as general s conditions, unemployment, etc2
assists chemica	a chemist in developing l formulas3
DON'T K	8 WOM
i. Assembler	
puts to machine	gether and fixes sused on an assembly linel
takes t line ar	oroken parts off an assembly and sends them to scrap area2
works o	on a production line putting together3
DON'T I	KNOW8
INTERVIEWER: SEI	E O.1B, SECTION 1. IS R
14 OR	15 YEARS OLD (SKIP TO SECTION 7)1
16 TO	22 YEARS OLD 2

We're trying to find out the main reasons why many young people your age have trouble getting a good job.

Have any of the following things ever caused you any problems in getting a good job--(First/Next) READ CATEGORIES A-F AND CODE "YES" OR "NO" FOR EACH.

	YES	NO
a. Lack of transportation? (PROBE IF NECESSARY: Has it caused you any		
problems in getting a good job?)	1	2
b. Discrimination on the basis of race?	1	2
c. Discrimination on the basis of nationality?	1	2
d. Discrimination on the basis of sex?	1	2
e. Discrimination on the basis of age?	1	2
f. A problem with English?	1	2



2.

	No(GO TO Q. 4) 2
in	YES: What other things have ever caused you problems getting a good job? RECORD VERBATIM AND CODE ALL THAT PLY.
	·
	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
	LACK OF EXPERIENCE
	LACK OF EDUCATION
	LACK OF TRAINING
	LACY OF ABILITY
	CAN'T PEAD OP WRITE
	EMPLOYERS DON'T LIKE MY APPEARANCE 07
	LACK OF CHILD CARE
	OTHER FAMILY RESPONSIBILITIES 09
	DON'T KNOW WHERE TO LOOK
	LACK OF AVAILABLE JOBS 11
	OTHER (SPECIFY)12
Not co	unting regular schooling like high school or college, would

A. IF YES: What kind of job would you most like to be trained for? RECORD VERBATIM.



## SECTION 7 MILITARY

The next few questions are about the military.

l <b>.</b>	INTERVIEWER: IS R
	14-16 YEARS OLD(SKIP TO Q. 72).1 17-22 YEARS OLD
2.	INTERVIEWER: SEE Q. 3 ON CALENDAR AND CODE ONE
	R HAS ATTENDED/IS NOW ATTENDING COLLEGE
3.	Are you currently participating in a officer training program, for example, ROTC, in a college or university?
	Yes(GO TO Q. 4)
	A. IF NO: Have you ever participated in an officer training program in a college or university?
	Yes 1 No(SKIP TO 0. 6) 2
4.	How long (have you been/were you) in such a program?
	   MONTHS
	 YEARS
5.	During your participation (did the program pay/is the program paying) for your tuition or fees?
	Yes 1 No 2
5.	Have you ever enlisted or been sworn into any branch of the Armed Forces, including the National Guard or the Reserves?
	Yes 1 No(SKIP TO Q. 65) 2

7. Which branch or branches have you been sworn into? CIRCLE ALL THAT APPLY.

#### **BRANCHES**

ACTIVE FORCES	ARMY(ASK A) 01 NAVY(ASK A) 02 AIR FORCE.(ASK A) 03 MARINES(ASK A) 04
RESERVES	Army Reserves 05 Navy Reserves 06 Air Force Reserves 07 Marine Reserves 08
GUARD	Air National Guard. 09 Army National Guard. 10 Coast Guard. (IF ONLY BRANCH CITED, SKIP TO SECTION 8) 11 OTHER (SPECIFY AND SKIP TO SECTION 8)
	12

## IF CODES 01-04, ASK A:

A. Was that in the regular (BRANCH OF SERVICE), (BRANCH OF SERVICE) reserves, Cuard, or both?

Regular .				 . 1
Reserves	or	Guar	rd	 . 2
Both				 

ALL CODES THAT APPLY ARE CIRCLED ABOVE.



A. IF CODE 1: We would like to ask you about your service in the (BRANCH).

| SKIP TO Q. 11 |

9. In which branch did you last serve?

10. We would like to ask you about both your active duty enlistment and your service in the (Reserves/National Guard).. Let's begin with your service in the (BRANCH OF MOST RECENT ENLISTMENT).



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		MOST RECENT/CURRENT ENLISTMENT	SEC 07 PREVIOUS ENLISTMENT
11.	In what month and year did you first enter (active duty in) the (BRANCH)?	   MONTH         	   MONTH
	A. INTERVIEWER: WAS R IN ACTIVE FORCE DURING THIS PERIOD OF SERVICE?	YEAR I <u> </u>	YEAR II
		Yes	Yes 1 No.(GO TO Q. 12). 2
	B. INTERVIEWER: IF DATE IS  IN 1978 OR 1979, ASK: On what day was that? ENTER DAY HERE AND RECORD ENTRY DATE ON CALENDAR.	I!! DAY !!	 DAY   _
12.	When you first enlisted in the (BRANCH), how many years (of active duty) did you sign up for?	 YEARS	 YEARS
			SKIP TO Q. 15
13.	Are you currently (on active duty/serving in) the (Branch)?	Yes(ANSWER A) 1 No(SKIP TO Q. 15) 2	//////////////////////////////////////
	A. INTERVIEWER: WAS R IN ACTIVE FORCE DURING THIS PERIOD OF SERVICE?	YES 1 NO .(CO TO Q.14). 2	
•	B. IF YES, INTERVIEWER, ENTER INTERVIEW DATE ON CALENDAR. DRAW A LINE FROM (ENTRY DATE /JAN. 1, 1978) TO NOW.		//////////////////////////////////////
14.	In what month and year will your current enlistment end?		//////////////////////////////////////
•		HONTH	
		YEAR 191  	

			SEC 07 -39-
15.	In what month and year did you separate from (BRANCH)?  A. INTERVIEWER: WAS R IN ACTIVE FORCES DURING THIS PERIOD OF SERVICE?	NONTH	MONTH
	B. INTERVIEWER: IF DATE IS  IN 1978 OR 1979, ASK: On what day was that? ENTER DAY HERE AND RECORD EXIT DATE ON CALENDAR, DRAW A LINE FRON (ENTRY DATE/ JAN. 1, 1978) TO DATE SEPARATED.	DAY	DAY
16.	When you went into the (BRANCH) did you receive any enlistment bonuses?	Yes(SKIP TO Q. 20)1 No(SKIP TO Q. 21) 2	Yes(SKIP TO Q. 20)1 No(SKIP TO Q.21) 2
17.	Is this enlistment period in the (BRANCH) your lst, 2nd, or what? If you received an extension to your current enlistment, do not count this as a new enlistment period.	lst Enlistment 1 2nd.(SKIP TO 0. 19) 2 3rd.(SKIP TO 0. 19) 3	
18.	Certain military jobs carry a cash enlistment bonus. When you enlisted in (PRANCH), did you sign up for a job which paid such a bonus?	Yes(SKIP TO Q.20) 1 No(SKIP TO Q. 21) 2 Don't know (SKIP TO Q. 21) 8	
19.	At your last re-enlistment, did you receive a re-enlistment bonus?	Yes	//////////////////////////////////////
20.	What (is/was) the total amount before taxes and deductions of the bonus you received (or will \$ receive)?		 

			SEC 07 -40-
21.	What (is/was) your pay grade [when you left the (BRANCH)]?		
	(when you left the (BKANCH));	   E	   E
		<u>                                     </u>	1 0 1 1 1
		W	W
		DON'T KNOW 998	DON'T KNOW 998
		Other (SPECIFY)	Other (SPECIFY)
		004	004
22.	INTERVIEWER: (IC/WAS) THIS ENLIST- MENT IN THE RESERVES OR NAT. NAL GUARD?	Yes(SKIP TO Q. 24)1 NO 2	YES(SKIP TO (). 24) 1
23.	[When you lett the (BRANCH),]		
	What (is/was) your total monthly pay befor 2 taxes and other de-		!
	ductions. Please include \$ basic pay and allowances for housing or food and any special pays.	·	\$
		SKIP TO 0. 27	SKIP TO 0. 29
24.	OR GUARD ANY TIME DURING 1978? ('YES' TO Q. 13 OR DATE IN Q. 15 SINCE JAN. 1, 1978.)		
		Yes	Yes 1 No.(SKIP TO Q. 29) 2
25.	During 1978, how many drills were you paid for? By drill we mean a 4 hour period of training.		10 (t 2), tt 2
	·	 OF DRILLS	 # OF . ILLS
26.	How many weeks of active of	, <u> </u>	
	duty did you serve in 1978, in- cluding initial training, summer camp and any mobilization or call ups?		
	•	MEEKS	WEEKS
			   SKIP TO Q. 29
			Skir 10 Q. 29

			-41-
27.	INTERVIEWER: IS R CURRENTLY ON ACTIVE DUTY IN THE ARMY, NAVY, AIR FORCE, OR MARINES? (IF YES TO BOTH QUESTIONS 11A AND 13)	YES 1 NO(SKIP TO Q. 29) 2	SEC 07 ////////////////////////////////////
28.	During the last 7 days, how many hours did you work? Do not include any hours you were on call but not actually working.	!  	
29.	Now I'd like to ask you about your military jobs and training. [at the time you left the (BRANCH)].		
	FOR ARMY, MARINE CORPS, AND NATIONAL CUARD AND THE RESERVES OF THESE BRANCHES:		
	What (is/was) your (current) Primary 1:0S?	   _ _ _ _	   <u></u>   <u>-</u>   <u>-</u>
			   SKIP TO Q. 31         OR   DON'T KNOW (SKIP   TO Q. 30) 9998
	FOR NAVY AND NAVY RESERVES:		
	What (is/was) your (current) Primary RATING?	!!!!!! !!!!!!	   _ _
		SKIP TO Q. 31   	   SKIP TO Q. 31        OR   DON'T KNOW (SKIP   TO Q. 30) 9998
	FOR AIR FORCE AND AIR FORCE RESERVES:		
	What (is/was) your (current) Primary AFSC?	  ! _ _	 
		SKIP TO Q. 31	SKIP TO Q. 31
		DON'T KNOW (SKIP TO Q. 30) 9999998	OR DON'T KNOW (SKIP TO Q. 30) 9999998

30.	INTERVIEWER: IF R SAYS "DON'T KNOWN IN Q. 29 ASK A AND B. OTHERWISE,  GO TO Q. 31.  A. What (is/was) the name of the job you were trained for?  B. What (are/were) your main activities or duties?	w''	SEC	07 -43
31.	Did you receive any formal school training for (this/that) (MOS/RATING/AFSC)?	Yes		Yes
32.	In all, how many weeks of formal school training did you complete?	WEEKS     		WEEKS       _
33.	Did you receive any on the job training for (this/that) (MOS/ RATING/AFSC)?	Yes		Yes
34.	In all, how many weeks of on the job training for (this/that) (NOS/RATINC/AFSC) did you receive?	WEEKS  !!		WEEKS
35.	Excluding OJT and formal school, [(since/after) you completed training], how many months (have you/did you) actually work(ed) in (your current/that) (MOS/RATING/AFSC)?	MONTHS     11_1		!'ONTHS      11
		e e		SKIP TO 0. 37
36.	INTERVIEWER: CODE ONT: R IS CURRENTLY	SERVING IN ACTIVE FORCES (SKIP TO Q. 39) 1 SERVINC IN RESERVE/GUARD (SKIP TO Q. 38) 2 NOT SERVINC AT ALL 3		
37.	Since you left the (BRANCH), have you used any skills from that (MOS/RATING/AFSC) in a civilian job?	Yes(CO TO Q. 38) 1 No		Yes(CO TO Q. 38) 1 No
		SKIP TO 0. 39		SKIP TO 0. 39



			43
38.	Does your current civilian job	SE.	C 97
•	use any skills from your (MOS/RATING/AFSC)?	Yes	Yes
39.	In addition to (your current/ the) Primary (MOS/RATING/AFSC) (have you/did you) receive(d) training in another (MOS/RATING/AFSC)?	Yes1 No(SKIP TO Q.53) 2	Yes
40.	Now I'd like to ask you about your military jobs and training. for this other (MOS/RATING/AFSC).		·
	FOR ARMY, MARINE CORPS, AND NATIONAL GUARD:		
	What (1s/was) this other MOS?	!      !	   _ _ _
		   SKIP TO Q. 43   	
		OR DON'T KNOW (GO TO 0. 42) 9998	OR DON'T KNOW (GO TO Q. 42) 9998
	FOR NAVY: What (1s/was) this other Rating?	   <u> -</u>   <u>- - - </u>	 
		   S.IF TO 0. 43        OR   DON'T KNOW (GO	
		TO Q. 42) 9998	TO Q. 42) 9998
	FOR AIR FORCE: What (is/was) this other AFSC?	1	   _ _
		SKIP TO Q. 43	SKIP TO Q. 43
Q.	41 ONITTED	OR DON'T KNOW (GO TO 0. 42) 9999998	OR DON'T KNOW (CO TO Q. 42) 9999998
42.	INTERVIEWER: IF R SAYS "DON'T KNOW IN Q. 40 ASK A AND B. OTHERWISE	81	
	A. What (is/was) the name of the job you were trained for?  B. What (are/were) your main		
	activities or duties?		



			-144
43.	Did you receive any formal		SEC 07
	school training for (this/ that) other (MOS/RATING/AFSC)?	Yes	Yes
44.	In all, how many weeks of formal school training did you complete?		
		WEEKS  1	VEEKS    ;
45.	Did you receive any on the job training for (this/that) other (MOS/RATING/AFSC)?	Yes	Yes
46.	In all, how many weeks of on the job training for (this/that) other (MOS/RATING/AFSC) did you receive?		
		   WEEKS   _	WEEKS   '
47.	(Since/After) you completed training, how many months (have you/did you) actually work(ed) in (this/that) other (MOS/RATING/AFSC)?		
		HONTHS	MONTHS
			SK11 .0 0, 50
48.	INTERVIEWER: CODE ONE: R IS CURRENTLY	SERVING ON ACTIVE FORCES.(SKIP TO 0.52) 1 SERVING IN RESERVES (SKIP TO 0.51) 2 NOT SERVING AT ALL (SKIP TO 0.50) 3	
Q.	49 OMITTED		,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,
50.	Since you left the (BRANCH), have you used any skills from your other (NOS/RATING/AFSC) in a civilian job?	Yes(GO TO Q. 51) 1 No	% s(GO TO 0. 51)1 No
		SKIP TO Q. 52	SKIP TO Q. 52
51.	Does your current civilian job use any skills from this (MOS/RATING/AFSC)?	Yes	Yes
52.	In addition to those 2 (MOS'S/RATING'S/AFSC'S),		′
	(have you completed/did you maplete training in another (MOS/	e) Yes	V
	RATING/AFSC)?	No 2	Yes 1 No 2





DOCTORAL DEGREE (PHD) 05

(MD, LLD, DDS)..... 06

PROFESSIONAL DECREE

OTHER (SPECIFY)

DOCTORAL DEGREE (PHD) 05

(MD, LLD, DDS)..... 06

PROFESSIONAL DECREE

OTHER (SPECIFY)

			510 W	_UL-
58.	(Do/Did) you participate in the Veterans Education Assistance Program-V.E.A.P-during this period			-46
	of enlistment?	Yes(ASK A) 1 No(GO TO Q. 59) 2	Yes(ASK A	
	A. IF YES: How much money (do/did you contribute each month to	)		
	this program?	111 \$ 11_1.00	- 	_1•00 1
	•		SKIP TO C	. 62
59.	INTERVIEWER: IS R CURRENTLY SERVING IN ACTIVE FORCES, IN RESERVES OR GUARD?	YES 1 NO(GO TO Q.62) 2	//////////////////////////////////////	1111111111
60,	of service, do you think you will definitely re-enlist, probably re-enlist, probably not pre-enlist, or definitely not pre-enlist?	efinitely re-enlist l robably re-enlist 2 robably not re-enlist 3 efinitely not re-enlist 4		//////////////////////////////////////
61.	When you finally leave the 3RANCH), how many total years of cervice do you expect to have?	 YEARS	//////////////////////////////////////	//////////////////////////////////////
62.	Now, taking all things together, how satisfied (are you/were you) with the (BRANCH)very satisfied, somewhat satisfied, somewhat dissatisfied, or very dissatisfied?	Very satisfied	Very satisfied Somewhat satis Somewhat dissa Very dissatisf	fied 2 tisfied. 3
			I CO TO O.	75 I

63.	INTERVIEWER: HA SEE QUESTION 7 O	S R SERVED IN ANOTHER BRANCH OF THE MILITARY? F THIS SECTION.
		YES
64.	in the (BRANCH/R	ask you about your previous enlistment eserves/Guard). INTERVIEWER: POR PREVIOUS ENLISTMENT.
65.		ken the three-hour written test called the quired to enter the military?
		Yes
66.		lked to a military recruiter to get t a branch of the military?
		Yes
67.	What branches of CODE ALL THAT AP	the armed forces did you talk to? PLY
		Army
58.	Have you ever ta to enter the mil	ken the physical examination required itary?
		Yes
59 <b>.</b>		re you trying to join when you took m? CODE ALL THAT APPLY
		Army
70.	Did you meet the enlisting in the trying to join me	physical and mental requirements for (BRANCH FROM 0. 69/the service you were ost recently)?
		Yes



71.	What is the main reason you decided not to enlist in the (BRANCH from Q. 67 or O. 69/the service you were trying to join most recently)? PROBE: What is the one main reason?  RECORD VERBATIM AND CODE ONLY.
	JOB I WANTED WASN'T AVAILABLE WHEN I WANTED IT
	I WANTED
	DIDN'T THINK I'D LIKE MILITARY 6 DECIDED TO GO TO SCHOOL 7 GOT A BETTER CIVILIAN JOB 8 OTHER (SPECIFY) 9
72.	Do you think for a young person to serve
	in the military is:
	Definitely a good thing,
73.	Do you think, in the future, that you will:
	Definitely try to enlist, 1 Probably try to enlist, 2 Probably not try to enlist
	(SKIP TO SECTION 8)
74.	In which service do you think you will be most likely to enlist?
	Army



75. INTERVIEWER: IS R CURRENTLY SERVING IN THE ACTIVE FORCES OF THE MILITARY? (SEE ROW A OF CALENDAR)

A. Now we would like to ask you some more specific questions about your current military job.

SKIP TO Q. 19, SECTION 8

# SECTION 8 ON CURRENT LABOR FORCE STATUS (CPS QUESTIONS)

	doing <u>most</u> of <u>last</u> week — working, going to mething else? RECORD VERBATIM AND CODE ONE
	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
	Working(SKIP TO 0.3) 01
	WITH A JOB BUT NOT AT WORK 02
CODE   SMALLEST #	LOOKING FOR WORK 03
MENTIONED	YEEPING HOUSE
	Going to school
	UNABLE TO WORK(SKIP TO 0. 36) 06
	Other (SPECIFY)07
work around t	ny work at all <u>last week</u> , not counting the house? (IN TORVIEWER NOTE: IF FARM OR RATOR IN HH, ASK R ABOUT UNPAID WORK.)
	Yes 1
	No (SKIP TO 0.8) 2
How many hour	s did you work <u>last week</u> at all jobs?
	ENTER # OF HOURS:
INTERVIEWER,	CODE. RESPONDENT WORKED:
	1 - 34 HOURS(ASK 0.5) 1
	35 - 48 HOURS(ASK 0.6) 2
	49 OR MOPE HOURS (SKIP TO 0.13) 3
K Q.5 ONLY IF	CODE 1 IN 0.4.  Ly work 35 hours or more a week at this job?
	Yes (ASK A) 1
	No(ASK B) 5 2



	n you worked less than 35 hours <u>last week?</u>
_	<del></del>
_	SLACY WORK
	MATERIAL SHORTAGE 02
	PLANT OR MACHINE REPAIR 03
	NEW JOB STARTED DURING WEEK 04
	JOB TERMINATED DURING WEEK 05
	COULD FIND ONLY PART-TIME WORK 06
	HOLIDAY - LEGAL OR RELIGIOUS 07
	LABOR DISPUTE 08
	BAD WEATHER 09
	OWN ILLNESS 10
	ILLNESS OF OTHER FAMILY MEMBER 11
	ON VACATION 12
	ATTENDS SCHOOL
	TOO BUSY WITH HOUSEWORK, PERSONAL BUSINESS, ETC 14
	DID NOT WANT FULLTIME WORK 15
	FULL-TIME WORK WEEK UNDER 35 HOURS - 16



ain reas	THAN ONE REASON GIVEN, PROBE: What is the common you worked less than 35 hours <u>last week?</u>
	SLACK WORK 01
	MATERIAL SHORTAGE 02
	PLANT OR MACHINE REPAIR
	COULD FIND ONLY PART-TIME WORK 06
	BAD WEATHER 09
	OWN ILLNESS 10
	ILLNESS OF OTHER FAMILY MEMBER 11
	ATTENDS SCHOOL
	TOO BUSY WITH HOUSEWORK, PERSONAL BUSINESS, ETC
	DID NOT WANT FULL-TIME WORK 15
	FULL-TIME WORK WEEK UNDER 35 HOURS . 16
	OTHER REASON -(SPECIFY)17



ASK O.6 ONLY IF "35-48" HOURS IN O.4.
Did you lose any time or take any time off last week for any reason
such as illness, holiday, or slack work?
Yes 1
No 2
IF YES, ASK A & B. OTHERWISE, CO TO C.7.  A. How many hours did you take off?
ENTER # OF HOURS:
B. You told me earlier that you worked (# OF HOURS IN 0.3) hours last week. In saying that you worked (# OF HOURS IN 0.3) hours, had you already subtracted the (# OF HOURS IN A) hours that you took off last week?
Yes 1
No 2
IF "NO" TO B, ASK C & D. OTHERWISE, GO TO 0.13.  C. Thinking of the (# OF HOURS IN A) hours that you took off last week, how many hours did you end up working last week, at all jobs?
ENTER # OF HOURS:   _
D. INTERVIEWER CODE: RESPONDENT WORKED:
1 - 34 HOURS .(ASK E) 1
35 OR MORE HOURS(SKIP TO 0.13) 2



E.	IF	"1-34"	HOURS	IN D:	What is the reason you worked 35 hours <u>last week?</u> RECORD VICODE ONE ONLY.	
					IF MORE THAN ONE REASON GIVEN What is the one main reason you less than 35 hours last week?	
					<del></del>	
				SLACK	work	01
				MATERI	AL SHORTAGE	02
				PLANT	OR MACHINE REPAIR	03
				NEW JO	B STARTED DURING WEEK	04
				JOB TE	RMINATED DURING WEEK	05
				COULD	FIND ONLY PART-TIME WORK	06
				HOLIDA	Y - LEGAL OR RELIGIOUS	07
				LABOR	DISPUTE	08
				BAD WE	ATHER	09
				OWN IL	I.NESS	10
				ILLNES	S OF OTHER FAMILY MEMBER	11
				ON VAC	ATION	12
				ATTFND	S SCHOOL	13
					SY WITH HOUSEWORK, PERSONAL SS, ETC.	14
				DID NO	T WANT FULL-TIME WORK	15
				FUI.IT	IME WORK WEEK UNDER 35 HOURS .	16

NOW SKIP TO 0.13



OTHER REASON .(SPECIFY) \_\_\_\_\_\_19

7.	Did you work any overtime or at more than one job <u>last</u> week?	BLC .
	Yes (ASK A) 1	
	No (SKIP TO Q.13) 2	
	IF "YES", ASK A. OTHERWISE, SKIP TO 0.13.  A. How many extra hours did you work?	
	ENTER # OF     EXTRA HOURS:     ASK B	
	OR NO EXTRA HOURS (SKIP TO 0.13) 00	
	B. You told me earlier that you worked (# OF HOURS IN 0.3) hours last week. In saying that you worked (# OF HOURS IN 0.3) hours, had you already included those extra hours you just told me about?	
	Yes(SKIP TO 0.13) 1	
	No 2	
	C. IF "NO" TO B: Think of the (# OF HOURS IN A) hours that you worked extra last week. How many hours altogether, did you end up working last week?	
	ENTER # OF     HOURS:         AND SKIP TO 0.13.	
ASY.	Q.8 ONLY IF "NO" TO 0.2.  A. "TERVIEWER, LOOK AT 0.1. WAS CATEGORY 2 "WITH A JOB BUT NOT 12 WORK" CODED?	
	YES 1	
	NO 2	
	B. IF NO: Did you have a job or business from which you were temporarily absent or on layoff <u>last week?</u>	
	Yes 1	
	No(SKIP TO 0.29)	



why you were absent from work last week?					
	OWN ILLNESS(SKIP TO 0, 11) 01				
	ILLNESS OF OTHER FAMIL MEMBER(SKIP TO 0. 11)				
	ON VACATION(SKIP TO 0. 11) 03				
	BAD WEATHER(3KIP TO Q. 11) 04				
	LABOR DISPUTE(SKIP TO Q. 11) 05				
	NEW JOB TC BEGIN(ASK A) 06				
	ON LAYOFF(GO TO 0. 10) 07				
	SCHOOL INTERFERED.(SKIP TO Q. 11) 08				
	OTHER(SPECIFY BELOW AND SKIP TO 0. 11)				
begin wit	OB IS TO BEGIN": Is your new job scheduled to thin 30 days from today, or sometime after that?				
	Within 30 days 1				

ACV	Q.10 IF "ON LAYOFF" IN O.9.	SEC
	A. When you were laid off, were you given a definite date on which to report back to work, or were you not given such a date?	
	Was given a definite date to report back to work(ASK B) 1	
	Was not given such a date to report back to work(GO TO C) 2	
	B. IF "WAS GIVEN A DEFINITE DATE": Altogether, will your period of layoff last 30 days or less, or will it last more than 30 days?	
	30 days or less }	
	More than 30 days 2	
	C. How many weeks ago were you laid off?	
	ENTER # OF WEEKS: II_I	
	D. Is the job from which you were laid off a full-time or a part-time job?	
	Full-time 1	
	Part-time 2	
	NOW SKIP TO 0.35	
11.	Are you getting wages or salary for any of the time off last week?	
	Yes 1	
	No 2	
	IF VOL: SELF-EMPLOYED 3	
12.	Do you usually work 35 hours or more a week at this job?	
	Yes 1	
	No	



	B. ALSO ENTER NAME OF EMPLOYER IN EMPLOYER FLAP, COLUMN 1.
	C. In what town or city and state is this employer located?
	TOWN OR CITY
	(IF NO TOWN OR CITY, RECORD COUNTY BELOW:
	STATE
•	What kind of business or industry is this?
5.	What kind of work were you doing for this job? RECORD VERBATIM. IF MORE THAN ONE KIND OF WORK: PROBE:
	What kind of work were you doing for the most hours last week?
	<del></del>
	<del></del>
6.	What were your most important activities or duties?



17)	HAND CARD C. Were you (READ CATEGORIES BELOW)	SEC
	An employee of a <u>private company</u> , business, or individual for wages, salary, or commission, or (GO TO 0. 18)	
	A government employee, or (ASK A) 2	
	Self employed in <u>own</u> business, professional practice, or farm, or(ASK B) 3	
	Working without pay in family business or farm? (SKIP TO 0. 27). 4	
	IF CODE 2 IN C.17, ASK A  A. Were you an employee of the federal government, state government, or local government?	
	Federal government employee 1	
	State government employee 2	
	Local government employee 3	
	DON'T KNOW 8	
	SKIP TO Q. 19	
	IF CODE 3 IN 0.17, ASK B  B. Is your business incorporated or unincorporated?	
	Business incorporated 1	
	Business unincorporated 2	
	DON'T FNOW 8	
	SKIP TO 0. 19	



		SEC	(
18.	Many companies or organizations have employees at more than one location. Resides the place where you work does (EMPLOYER) have any employees working at any other location, as far as you know?		
	Yes 2		
	A. At the place where you work, How many employees does (EMPLOYER) have?		
	ENTER # OF EMPLOYEES:   _ ,		
	IF YES TO 0. 18, ASK B. OTHERWISE, GO TO 0. 19.  B. As far as you know, about how many employees does  (EMPLOYER) have working at all of its other locations— under 1,000 employees, or 1,000 employees or more?		
	Under 1,000 employees 1		
	1,000 employees or more 2		
	DON'T KNOW 8		
19.	What hours do you usually work? Is it the regular day shift, the regular evening shift, the regular night shift, a split shift, or do your hours vary? CODE ONE ONLY.		
	Regular day shift		
20.	How long does it <u>usually</u> take you to get <u>from</u> your home <u>to</u> work?		
	 ENTER # OF MINUTES   _		
21.	A. INTERVIEWER: IS R SELF EMPLOYED IN A BUSINESS WHICH IS UNINCORPORATED? (O. 17B COL D 2 OR 8)		
	YES(SKIP TO 0. 23) 1		
	B. INTERVIEWER: IS R ON ACTIVE DUTY IN THE MILITARY? (SEE ROW A ON CALENDAR)	<b>i</b>	
	YES(SKIP TO 0.23) 1		
	NO 2		



22. Does your employer make (READ CATEGORY) available to you? CODE "YES" OR "NO" FOR EACH.

		<u>Ye s</u>	No
Α.	Medical, surgical, or hospital insurance that covers injuries or major illnesses off the job?	1	2
В.	Life insurance that would cover your death for reasons not connected with your job?	1	2
С.	Paid vacation?	1	2

23. HAND CARD H. We would like to know what kinds of opportunities this job offers you. (First/Next), how much opportunity does this job give you (READ CATECORY)—a minimum amount, not too much, a moderate amount, quite a lot, or a maximum amount? (READ CATEGORIES 1-5 AND CODE FOR EACH.)

		A Minimum Amount	Not Too <u>Much</u>	A Moderate Amount	Ouite A Lot	A Maximum Amount
1.	To do a number of different things	1	2	3	4	5
2.	to deal with other people	1	2	3	4	5
3.	For independent thought or action	1	2	3	4	5
4.	To develop close friendships in your job	1	2	3	4	5
5.	To do a job from beginning to end- (PROBE IF NECESSARY: that is, the chance to do the whole job)	1	2	3	4	5



24.	Α.	that the job itsethe broader scheme	ch does your job give you the feeling elf is very significant or important in me of thingsa minimum amount, not too amount, quite a lot, or a maximum amount?
			A minimum amount 1
			Not too much 2
			A moderate amount 3
			Ouite a lot 4
			A maximum amount 5
	В.	INTERVIEWER: IS	R SELF EMPLOYED? (CODE 3 IN 0.17)
			YES(SKIP TO Q. 26) 1
			NO 2
	C.	that you know wh well or poorly	much does your job give you the feeling ether or not you are performing your job a minimum amount, not too much, a moderate lot, or a maximum amount? (CARD H)
			A minimum amount 1
			Not too much 2
			A moderate amount 3
			Quite a lot 4
			A maximum amount 5.

25. We would like to know how well or poorly each of the following statements describes your job. (First/Next), (READ CATEGORY). Thinking of your present job, would you say this is very true, somewhat true, not too true, or not at all true? HAND CARD I. THEN READ CATEGORIES 1-10 AND CODE FOR EACH.

		Very True	Somewhat True	Not Too True	Not At All True
1.	You are given a chance to do the things you do best	4	3	2	1
2.	The physical surroundings are pleasant	4	3 •	2	1
3.	The skills you are learning would be valuable in getting a better job	4	3	2	1
4.	The job is dangerous	4	3	2	1
5.	You are exposed to unhealthy condition	s 4	3	2	1
6.	The pay is good	4	3	2	1
7.	The job security is good	4	3	2	1
8.	Your co-workers are friendly	4	3	2	1
9.	Your supervisor is competent in doing the job	4	3	2	1
10.	The chances for promotion are good	4	3	2	. 1

ASK Q. 26 ONLY IF R IS SFLF-EMPLOYED (SEE O. 17).

26. We are interested in your opinion, as a self-employed person, of your job.

We would like to know how well or poorly each of the following statements describes your job. (First/Next), (READ CATECORY). Thinking of your present job, would you say this is very true, somewhat true, not too true, or not at all true? HAND CARD I. THEN READ CATECORIES 1-7 AND CODE FOR EACH.

		Very True	Somewhat True	Not Too True	Not At All True
1.	You have the chance to do the things you do	,			
	hest	4	3	2	1
2.	The physical surroundings are pleasant	4	3	2	1
3.	The experiences you are gaining would also be valuable in getting another job or business	,		•	
	nusiness	4	3	2	1
4.	The job is dangerous	4	3	2	1
5.	The business is stable	4	3	2	1
6.	You are exposed to unhealthy conditions	s 4	3	2	1
7.	The income is good	4	3	2	1
					_

27. A. I'd like to get some idea of the kind of job you'd most like to have. If you were free to go into any type of job you wanted, what would you do? Would you take another job or keep the same job as you have now?



F	~	ΛQ	

	В.	you think as good -	it would be a extremely d	our current joh, how diffi to find another job that w ifficult, somewhat difficu CODE ONE ONLY.	as just	SEC 08
			!	Extremely difficult Somewhat difficult Not at all difficult	. 2	
28.	Α.	it very m	uch, like it :	the job you have now? Do fairly well, dislike it so CODE ONE ONLY.	you like mewhat, or	
			]	Like it very much Like it fairly well Dislike it somewhat Dislike it very much	2	
	В.	. —		CURRENTLY ON ACTIVE 1 CALENDAR, ROW A)?	OUTY IN THE	
		YES	.(SKIP TO SEC	TION 9, PACE 77) 1		
		NO	• • • • • • • • • • • • •	2		
	С.	the	'll be asking e interview al ne different o	some more questions later hout this job. Pight now, questions.	on in we have	
			•	P TO 0. 39		
ASK	0.2	9 ONLY IF "I	NO" TO 0.8B.			
	Λ.	INTERVIEWER	SEE 0.1:	FOR WOPK" CODED?		
			YES(	(GO TO 0.30)	1	
			NO(	(ASK B)	2	
	В.	IF NO: Have 4 weeks?	you been look	king for work during the pa	ast	
			Yes		1	
			No(	(SKIP TO Q.36)	2	



	NOTHING(SKIP TO Q.36)	01
	CHECKED WITH:	
	STATE EMPLOYMENT AGENCY	
	PRIVATE EMPLOYMENT AGENCY EMPLOYER DIRECTLY	
	FRIENDS OR RELATIVES	
	PLACED OR ANSWERED ADS	06
	LOOKED IN THE NEWSPAPER	07
	SCHOOL EMPLOYMENT SERVICE	08
	OTHER (SPECIFY)	09
uit a job a	start looking for work? Was it because yet that time (PAUSE) or was there some of CORD VERBATIM AND CODE ONE ONLY.	
uit a job a	it that time (PAUSE) or was there some of	
uit a job a	it that time (PAUSE) or was there some of	
uit a job a	t that time (PAUSE) or was there some of CORD VERBATIM AND CODE ONE ONLY.	Ol
uit a job a	t that time (PAUSE) or was there some of CORD VERBATIM AND CODE ONE ONLY.  LOST JOB	01 02
uit a job a	t that time (PAUSE) or was there some of CORD VERBATIM AND CODE ONE ONLY.  LOST JOB	01 02 03
uit a job a	LOST JOB	01 02 03 04
uit a job a	LOST JOB	01 02 03 04 05
uit a job a	LOST JOB	01 02 03 04 05
uit a job a	LOST JOB	01 02 03 04 05 06 07
uit a job a	LOST JOB  QUIT JOB  LEFT SCHOOL  CHILDREN ARE OLDER  ENJOY WORKING  HELP WITH FAMILY EXPENSES  WANTED TEMPORARY WORK	01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08
uit a job a	LOST JOB  QUIT JOB  LEFT SCHOOL  CHILDREN ARE OLDER  ENJOY WORKING  HELP WITH FAMILY EXPENSES  WANTED TEMPORARY WORK  HEALTH IMPROVED	01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09



32.	INTERVIEWER: CODE: ANSWER CODED IN Q.9 IS:	
	NEW JOB TO BEGIN(ASK Q.33)	1
	BLANKQ.9 NOT ASKED(SKIP TO Q.34).	2
1F 33.	CODE 1 IN Q. 32, ASK Q. 33.  A. How many weeks ago did you start looking for work	.?
	 ENTER # OF WEEKS:	
	B. Is 'our new job a full-time or a part-time job?	
	Full-time	1
	Part-time	2
	C. Is there any reason why you could not take a job <u>l</u> week?	ast
	Yes(ASK D)	1
	E(SKIP TO SECTION 9)	2
	D. IF YES TO C: What was the reason? RECORD VERBATI CODE ONE ONLY.	M AND
	ALREADY HAD A JOB	1
	TEMPORARY ILLNESS	2
	GOING TO SCHOOL	3
	NEEDED AT HOME	4
	OTHER (SPECIFY)	5
	NOW SKIP TO SECTION 9	

	CODE 2 IN 0. 32, ASK 0. 34.  A. How many weeks have you been looking for work?	SE
	   ENTER # OF WEEKS:	
	B. Have you been looking for full-time or part-time wo	ork?
	Full-time	1
	Part-time	2
35.	Is there any reason why you could not take a job last	week?
	Yes(ASK A)	1
	No(GO TO Q.3°)	2
	A. IF YES: What was the reason?  RECORD VERBATIM AND CODE ONE ONLY.	
		<del></del>
	ALREADY HAD A JOB	1
	TEMPORARY ILLNESS	2
	COING TO SCHOOL	3
	NEEDED AT HOME	4
	OTHER (SPECIFY BELOW)	5
	11	
	NOW SKIP TO Q. 39	
36.	Do you want a regular job now, either full- or part-t	ime?
	Yes(ASK A)	1
	No (ASK B)	2
	MAYBE, IT DEPENDS(ASK A)	3



DON'T KNOW ..... (ASK B)..... 8

RECORD V	the reasons you are not looking for work? VERBATIM AND CODE ALL THAT APPLY.
	BELIEVE NO WORK
	AVAILABLE IN LINE OF WORK
	OR AREA
	COULDN'T FIND ANY WORK
	LACKS NECESSARY SCHOOLING
	TRAINING, SKILLS, OR EXPERIENCE
	EMPLOYERS THINK TOO YOUNG
	OTHER PERSONAL HANDICAPS_
	IN FINDING JOB
	CAN'T ARRANGE CHILD CARE
	FAMILY RESPONSIBILITIES
	IN SCHOOL OR OTHER TRAINING
	ILL HEALTH, PHYSICAL DISABILITY
	PREGNANCY
	SPOUSE OR PARENTS AGAINST MY WORKING
	DOES NOT WANT DO WORK
	CAN'T ARRANCE TRANSPORTATION
	DON'T KNOW WHERE TO LOOK
	OTHER (SPECIFY)

KECUKU VEKBA	TIM AND CODE ALL THAT APPLY.
	BELIEVE NO WORK
	AVAILABLE IN LINE OF WORK
	OR AREA
	COULDN'T FIND ANY WORK
	LACKS NECESSARY SCHOOLING
	TRAINING, SKILLS, OR EXPERIENCE
	EMPLOYERS THINK TOO YOUNG
	OTHER PERSONAL HANDICAPS
	IN FINDING JOB
	CAN'T ARRANGE CHILD CARE
	FAMILY RESPONSIBILITIES
	IN SCHOOL OR OTHER TRAINING
	ILL HEALTH, PHYSICAL DISABILITY
	PREGNANCY
	SPOUSE OF PARENTS ACAINST MY WORKING
	DOES NOT WANT DO WORK
	CAN'T ARRANGE TRANSPORTATION
	DON'T KNOW WHERE TO LOOK
	OTHER (SPECIFY)
	OR



SEC 08 37. INTERVIEWER: SEE HOUSEHOLD ENUMERATION AND CODE: R IS 14-15 YEARS OLD (SKIP TO SECTION 9) ..... 1 16 YEARS OLD OR OLDER ..... 2 38. Do you intend to look for work of any kind in the next 12 months? No .....(SKIP TO SECTION 9)...... 2 OR IT DEPENDS (SPECIFY AND SKIP TO SECTION 9) \_\_\_\_\_\_ 3 OR DON'T KNOW .(SKIP TO SECTION 9)..... 8 39.A. INTERVIEWER: SEE HOUSEHOLD ENUMERATION AND CODE: R IS: 14-15 YEAPS OLD (SKIP TO 16 YEARS OLD OR OLDER ..... 2



	B. <u>INTERVIEWER</u> :	CODE:	
		R IS LOOKING FOR WORK (CODE 1 IN O. 29A OR B)(SKIP TO 0.46)	1
		ALL OTHERS INCLUDING 0.29A AND B NOT ASKED	2
40•	Have you been	looking for <u>other</u> work in the last 4 w	eeks?
		Yes(ASK A)	1
		No(ASK Os.41 & 42)	2
		have you been doing in the last four ? RECORD VERBATIM AND CODE ALL THAT A	
		NOTHING(ASK OS.41 & 42)	01
		CHECKED WITH:	
		STATE EMPLOYMENT AGENCY (SKIP TO 0. 43) PRIVATE EMPLOYMENT AGENCY	02
		(SKIP TO 0. 43)	03
		(SKIP TO Q. 43)	04
		(SKIP TO 0. 43)	05
		PLACED OR ANSWERED ADS(SKIP TO 0. 43)	06
		LOOKED IN THE NEWSPAPER(SKIP TO Q. 43)	07
		SCHOOL EMPLOYMENT SERVICE (SKIP TO 0. 43)	08
		OTHER (SPECIFY AND SKIP TO	
		0. 43)	09



NOW SKIP TO SECTION 9



	LITTLE CHANCE FOR ADVANCEMENT IN CURRENT JOB
	PAY INADEQUATE AT CURRENT JOB 02
	WORKING CONDITIONS BAD AT CURRENT JOB
	CURRENT JOB IS PART-TIME OR SEASONAL, DESIRE FULL-TIME WORK
	CURRENT JOB DOES NOT MAKE GOOD USE OF MY EXPERIENCE OR SKILLS
	WISP TO LIVE IN A NEW LOCATION 06
	WANT JOB IN A DIFFERENT FIELD 07
	OTHER (SPECIFY) 08
For how many	weeks have you been looking for a new job?
	 ENTER # OF WEEKS:
What type of	work are you looking for? CODE ONE ONLY.
ONE TYPE	OF WORK (SPECIFY)
	1
	TYPES OF WORK.  Thich one would you prefer?
	······ 2



46.	Earlier you said that you have been looking for work type of work are you looking for? CODE ONE ONLY.	• What
	ONE TYPE OF WORK (SPECIFY)	
		1
	SEVERAL TYPES OF WORK.  PROBE: Which one would you prefer?	
	(SPECIFY)	2
	ANYTHING	3
	   SKIP TO Q.48   	
47.	Earlier you said that you intend to look for work inext 12 months. What type of work will you be looking.	
	ONE TYPE OF WORK (SPECIFY)	
		1
	SEVERAL TYPES OF WORK.	
	PROBE: Which one would you prefer? (SPECIFY)	2
	ANYTHING	3

48.	What would the wage or salary have to be for you willing to take it? PROBE IF NECESSARY: Is thour, day, week, or what?	ou to be hat per	SFC
	;   _ _	r 01	
		02	
	Per wee	k 03	
	Bi-week (ever	ly y 2 weeks) 04	
	Per mon	th 05	
	Per year	r 06	
	Other (	SPECIFÝ)	
		07	
	OR, IF VOLUNTEERED:		
	ANY PAY		
49.	A. How many days per week (do/would) you want	to work?	

B. How many hours per day (do/would) you want to work?

ENTER # OF DAYS

PER WEEK:

ENTER # OF HOURS |--|-PER DAY: |\_\_|\_

?

## SECTION 9 ON JOBS

1.	INTERVIEWER: CODE. R IS:
	14 OR 15 YEAPS OLD .(ANSWER A) 1
	16 TO 22 YEARS OLD .(GO TO O. 2) 2
	A. IF 14 CR 15 INTERVIEWER: DID R HAVE A JOB LAST WEEK (SEE EMPLOYER FLAP, COL 1)?
	YES(SKIP TO 0. 6) 1
	NO(SKIP TO 0. 8) 2
2.	INTERVIEWER: DID R HAVE A JOB LAST WEEK (SEE EMPLOYER FLAP COLUMN 1) OR WAS R ON ACTIVE DUTY IN THE ACTIVE FORCES SINCE JAN. 1, 1978? (SEE CALENDAR)
	YES (ASK A) 1
	NO (GO TO 0.3) 2
	A. IF YES: We're interested in all the (civilian) jobs you've had for pay since January 1, 1978, including work that was part of a school or government-sponsored program. Besides (the job you had last week/your military service), have you done any other work for pay since January 1, 1978?
	Yes (SKIP TO 0.4) 1
	No
3.	We're interested in any kind of (civilian) work you've done for pay since January 1, 1978, including work that was part of a school or government-sponsored program. Since January 1, 1978, have you done any work at all for which you were paid?
	Yes 1
	No(SKIP TO 0. 8) 2
4.	Some jobs are odd jobsthat is, work done from time to time, like occasional lawnmowing or habysitting. Others are regular jobs, that is, jobs done on a more or less regular basis.
	(Not counting the job you had last week,) Since January 1, 1978, have any of the jobs you've had for pay been done on a more or less regular basis?
	Yes(CO TO 0. 5) 1
	No (ANSWER A) 2
	A. IF NO: INTERVIEWER, DID R HAVE A JOB LAST WEEK? (SEE EMPLOYER FLAP)
	YES(SKIP TO 0. 6)

75. Please give me the names of each of your employers for all regular jobs you've had since January 1, 1978, (not counting the job you had last week). If you had more than one job at the same time, please tell me about each job separately. Let's start with the most recent regular job you've had.

LIST EMPLOYER NAMES IN COLUMNS 2-6 OF Q. 1 OF THE EMPLOYER FLAP, STARTING WITH THE MOST RECENT JOB.

PROBE: What was the name of your employer for the next most recent regular job you've had since January 1, 1978?

CONTINUE PROBING UNTIL R SAYS "NO OTHER EMPLOYER."

IF R VOLUNTEERS THAT (HE/SHE) WORKED FOR MORE THAN ONE EMPLOYER FOR A JOB, ASK A. OTHERWISE, CO TO Q. 6.

<ul> <li>During for or</li> </ul>	g a single month, (do/did) you generally work ne employer or more than one employer for this job?
	One employer [ASK (1)] 1
	More than one
	employer [ASK (2)] 2
(1)	IF ONE EMPLOYER IN A: What (is/was) the name of
ī	the (next) most recent employer you've worked for
C	on this job?
	THE EMPLOYER FLYD
	RECORD IN COLUMN HEADINGS OF A JOB SUPPLEMENT AND
F	REASK THIS OUESTION UNTIL YOU GET "NO OTHER
F	CMPLOYER," THEN GO TO Q. 6.
(2) 1	F MORE THAN ONE EMPLOYER IN A: RECORD "VARIETY OF
Ē	MPLOYERS" IN O. 1 OF COLUMN HEADING IN THE JOB EMPL
FLAPS	UPPLEMENT. NOW GO TO O. 6.
TERVIEWER	TO DESCRIPTION OF THE PROPERTY
	REGULAR SCHOOL-THAT IS, IN GRADES 1-12, OR IN
	COLLECE? (SEE CALENDAR: 0. 1 CODED 1, OR DATE
	IN O. 2 AFTER JAN. 1, 1978)
	YES 1



6.

7.	Some schools have cooperative work study programs in which students work part-time as part of their school programs—that is, the school gives time off or credit for the job. Since January 1, 1978, have you had a job that was part of a work-study program? Be sure to tell me if (one of) the job(s) you already told me about (REFER TO LIST OF EMPLOYERS) was this kind of job.
	Yes(ASK A)
	No(SKIP TO 0. 10) 2
	A. IF YES: SHOW R THE EMPLOYER LIST AND ASK: What was the name of your employer for each work-study job you've had since January 1, 1978?
	IF EMPLOYER WAS ALREADY ON THE LIST, CIRCLE CODE 2 AT Q. 2 FOR THIS JOB.
	IF EMPLOYER WAS NOT ALREADY ON THE LIST, ADD THE EMPLOYER NAME(S) AND CIRCLE CODE 2 AT O. 2 FOR THIS JOB.
	NOW SKIP TO O. 10
8.	INTERVIEWER: AT ANY TIME SINCE JAN. 1, 1978, HAS R BEEN ENROLLED IN REGULAR SCHOOL-THAT IS, CRADES 1-12, OR IN COLLEGE? (SEE CALENDAR, O. 1 CODED 1, OR DATE IN O. 2 AFTER JAN. 1, 1978)
	YES 1
	NO (SKIP TO O. 14) 2
9.	Some schools have cooperative work study programs in which students work part-time as part of their school programsthat is, the school gives time off or credit for the job.
	(Sometimes people forget to tell us about all of the jobs they've had.) Since January 1, 1978, have you had a job that was part of a work-study program?
	Yes(ASK A)
	No
	A. IF YFS: What was the name of the employer for that job? PUT ON EMPLOYER LIST AND CIRCLE CODE 2 AT O. 2 FOR THIS JOB.



10. INTERVIEWER: WAS R EVER ENROLLED IN COLLEGE? (BOX CHECKED IN C. 3 ON CALENDAR)
YES (ASK A) 1
NO(SKIP TO O. 11) 2
A. IF YES: Since Jan. 1, 1978, have you had a job that was provided by a college work-study program? [Re sure to tell me if (any of) the job(s) you told me about earlier (SHOW R EMPLOYER LIST) was one of these kinds of jobs.]
Yes(ASF B)
No
B. IF YES TO A: [SHOW R EMPLOYER LIST AND ASK: What was the name of your employer for your college work-study job?
IF EMPLOYER WAS ALREADY ON THE LIST, CIRCLE CODE 3 AT O. 3 FOR THIS JOB. THEN SKIP TO O. 13.]
IF EMPLOYER WAS NOT ALREADY ON THE LIST, ADD THE EMPLOYER NAME(S) AND CIRCLE CODE 3 AT O. 3. THEN SKIP TO O. 13.
11. INTERVIEWER: IS AT LEAST ONE JOB ON THE EMPLOYER LIST?
YES 1
NO(SKIP TO 0. 13) 2
12. In some programs, the <u>government</u> provides part-time jobs for students <u>during the school year</u> . These jobs are often called the Neighborhood Youth Corps In-School program, and the In-School Work Experience program.
Since January 1, 1978, have you ever had a part-time job during the school year that was provided by the government? (PAUSE) Be sure to tell me if (any of) the job(s) you told me about earlier (SHOW R EMPLOYER LIST) was this kind of job.
Yes(ASK A)
No (SKIP TO 0. 14) 2
A. IF YES: SHOW R EMPLOYER LIST AND ASK: What was the name of your employer for any government-sponsored part-time job you've had since January 1, 1978?
IF EMPLOYER WAS ALREADY ON THE LIST, CIRCLE CODE 4 AT Q. 4 FOR THIS JOB.
IF EMPLOYER WAS NOT ALREADY ON THE LIST, ADD THE EMPLOYER NAME(S) AND CIRCLE CODE 4 AT O. 4 FOR THIS JOB.
NOW SKIP TO Q. 14



13.	In some (other) programs, the government provides part-time jobs for students during the school year. These jobs are often called the Neighborhood Youth Corps In-School program, and the In-School Work Experience program.
	(Just to make sure we don't miss any jobs,) Since January 1, 1978 have you had any (other) part-time job during the school year that was provided by the government?
	Yes(ASK A) 1
	No
	A. IF YES: What was the name of your employer for that job? ADD TO EMPLOYER LIST AND CIRCLE CODE 4 AT 0. 4.
14.	INTERVIEWER: IS THERE AT LEAST ONE JOB ON THE EMPLOYER LIST WITH NO CODE CIRCLED IN OS 2-4?
	YES 1
	NO(SKIP TO 0. 16) 2
15.	There are (other) government-sponsored programs, such as CETA, that provide people with jobs. We would like to talk about a few of these (other) kinds of programs.
	First, many programs provide jobs for about 10 weeks during the summer. The names of some are: The CETA Summer program, the NYC Summer program, the SPEDY program, and the Summer Youth Work Experience program.
	Since January 1, 1978, have you had a government-sponsored summer job? (PAUSE) Be sure to tell me if (any of) the job(s) you told me about earlier (SHOW R EMPLOYER LIST) was this kind of summer job.
	Yes 1
	No (SKIP TO Q. 17) 2
	A. IF YES: SHOW R EMPLOYER LIST AND ASK: What was the name of your employer for this government-sponsored summer job?
	IF EMPLOYER WAS ALREADY ON THE LIST, CIRCLE CODE 5 AT Q. 5 FOR THIS JOB.
	IF EMPLOYER WAS NOT ALREADY ON THE LIST, ADD THE EMPLOYER NAME AND CIRCLE CODE 5 AT Q. 5 FOR THIS JOB.



| NOW SKIP TO 0. 17 |

16.	There are (other) government-sponsored programs, such as CETA, that provide people with jobs. We would like to talk about a few of these (other) kinds of programs.					
	First, many programs provide jobs for about 10 weeks during the summer. The names of some are: The CETA Summer program, the NYC Summer program, the SPEDY program, and the Summer Youth Work Experience program.					
	(Just to make sure we haven't missed any job,) Since January 1, 1978, have you had a government-sponsored summer job?					
	Yes(ASK A)					
	A. IF YES: What was the name of your employer for this job?  PUT NAME OF EMPLOYER ON LIST AND CIRCLE CODE 5  AT 0. 5 FOR THIS EMPLOYER.					
17.	INTERVIEWER: IS R CURRENTLY ENROLLED IN GRADES 1-12? (SEE O. 1 ON CALENDAR)					
	YES (SKIP TO 0. 21) 1					
	NO 2					
18.	INTERVIEWER: IS THERE AT LEAST ONE JOB ON THE FMPLOYER LIST WITH NO CODE CIRCLED FOR OS 2-5?					
	YES					
19.	In some government-sponsored programs, people are provided with a job or with on-the-job training. The names of some are: Public Service Employment, the Work Experience Program, the Young Adult Conservation Corps, the J.O.B.S. Program, and the O.J.T. Program.					
	Since January 1, 1978, have you had a job or on-the-job training that was sponsored by the government?					
	Be sure to tell me if (any of) the job(s) you already told me about was this kind of job.					
	Yes(ASK A)					
	No (SYIP TO O. 21) 2					
	A. IF YES: SHOW R EMPLOYER LIST AND ASY: What was the name of your employer for this job?					
	IF EMPLOYER WAS ALREADY ON THE LIST, CIRCLE CODE 6 AT O. 6 FOR THIS JOB.					
	IF EMPLOYER WAS NOT ALREADY ON THE LIST, ADD EMPLOYER NAME AND CIRCLE CODE 6 AT O. 6 FOR THIS JOB.					



	25
20.	In some government-sponsored programs, people are provided with a job or with on-the-job training. The names of some are: Public Service Employment, the Work Experience Program, the Young Adult Conservation Corps, the J.O.B.S. Program, and the O.J.T. Program.
	(Just to make sure we don't miss any jobs,) Since January 1, 1978, have you had a job or on-the-job training that was sponsored by the government?
	Yes(ASK A)
	No 2
	A. IF YES: What was the name of your employer for this job? PUT THE NAME OF THE EMPLOYER ON LIST AND CIRCLE CODE 6 AT Q. 6 FOR THIS EMPLOYER.
21.	INTERVIEWER: IS THERE AT LEAST ONE JOB WITH NO CODE CIRCLED FOR QS 2-6?
	YES 1
	NO(SKIP TO 0. 23) 2
22.	HAND CARD J. Finally, take a look at this card. Since January 1, 1978, have you had a job that was sponsored by the kinds of government programs listed here? (PAUSE) Again, be sure to tell me if (any of) the job(s) you already told me about was part of one of these programs.
	Yes(ASK A)
	No(SKIP TO 0. 24) 2
	A. IF YES: SHOW R EMPLOYER LIST AND ASK: What was the name of your employer for this job?
	IF EMPLOYER WAS ALREADY ON THE LIST, CIRCLE CODE 7 AT 0. 7 FOR THIS JOB.
	IF EMPLOYER WAS NOT ALREADY ON THE LIST, ADD THE EMPLOYER NAME AND CIRCLE CODE 7 AT O. 7 FOR THIS JOB.
	   NOU SKID TO 0 2/
	NOW SKIP TO Q. 24



23. HAND CARD J. Finally, please take a look at this card.

Since January 1, 1978, have you had a job that was sponsored by the kinds of government programs listed here?

- A. IF YES: What was the name of your employer for this job?
  PUT NAME OF EMPLOYER ON LIST AND CIRCLE CODE 7
  AT O. 7 FOR THIS EMPLOYER.
- 24. Now we have just a few questions about jobs you may have had <u>before</u> January 1, 1978.

At any time before 1978, did you have any part-time job for pay that was part of your school program, in which you got time off or credit in school for working?

A. IF YES: Please tell me when you had this kind of part-time job as part of your school program--I just need the months and years.

	<u>F</u>	ROM:	<u>TO:</u>	
1.				
	_	<u> </u>  _	_	
	MONTH	YEAR	MONTH	YEAR
2.				
	_	_	_	
	MONTH	YEAR	MONTH	YEAR
3.	   <u> </u>   <u> </u>	   _ YEAR	   <u> </u>     MONTH	  !   YEAR
4.				
	_	_	<u> </u>   <u> </u>	_
	MONTH	<u>YE</u> AR	MONTH	YEAR



25.	HAND CARP v. At any time <u>hefore</u> 1978, did you have any of the kinds of government-sponsored jobs we've heen talking about? For example, a part-time job while you were in school, a summer job, or any other kind of job sponsored by the kinds of government programs listed on this card?						
		Yes .	•••••	(ASK A &	B)	1	
		No	•••••	(CO TO O.	26)	2	
	Α.	For each government-spot job you had before 1978 tell me the name of the ment program that spons that job. PROBE: What o	, please govern <del>-</del> ored	IN A, AS  B. When job	PROGRAM  K B:  did you  sponsored ME OF PRO	have a	
		MANUS OF COVERNMENT PRO	GRAMS	FRO	140	TO	<u>)</u>
		1.	OFFICE USE 	   <u> </u>    MONTH		11_1	   <u> </u>  _  YEAR
		2.	   <u>_</u>  _	III II_I MONTH	1_1_1	<u> _ _ </u>	   _  YEAR
		3	   _	_	    YEAR	1_1_1	   _   <u>YE</u> AR
		4.	   _	<u> </u>	     YEAR	111	1     _   <u>YE</u> AP
		5	 _	     MONTH	   _ YEAR	   _  MONTH	   _  YEAR
26.	INT	TERVIEWER: ARE ANY EMPLO	OYERS LIST	ED ON THE	EMPLOYER	FLAP?	
		YES NO .	(ADMIN (SKIP	ISTER SEC TO SECTIO	TION 10). N 11)	1 2	



?

## SECTION 10 JOBS

You told me that you worked for (NAME OF EMPLOYER). We would (also) like to ask you some (additional) questions about your job with this employer.

l.	When did you first start	!	
	working for (EMPLOYER)?	MONTH	MONTH II_
		 DAY	DAY ' _
		 YEAR 19  _	YEAR 1911_
2.	Are you currently working for (EMPLOYER)?	Yes(ANSWER A) 1	Yes(ANSWER A)
	tor (bill bill bill)	•	
		No(ASK B & C) 2	No(ASK B & C) :
	IF YES, ANSWER A:		

A. INTERVIEWER: ENTER INTERVIEW DATE IN ROW B OF CALENDAR. DRAW LINE IN ROW 60 ON CALENDAR

FROM (DATE RECAN/JAN. 1, 1978) TO PRESENT DATE. LABEL THE LINE WITH THE NAME OF THE EMPLOYER. THEN GO TO Q. 3.

IF NO, ASK B & C: When did you last stop

working for (EMPLOYER)? ENTER IN ROW B OF CALENDAR IN APPROPRIATE MONTH AND HERE. DRAW A LINE FROM (DATE BEGAN/ JAN. 1, 1978) TO DATE STOPPED. LABEL THE LINE WITH THE NAME OF THE EMPLOYER.

HTNOM	<u> _ </u>	нтиом	!!_
			111
DAY	<u>  </u>	DAY	'
			:
YEAR 1	911_1	YEAR 1	9111



   MONTH   _  	 MONTH	   MONTH
DAY 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	DAY	DAY
YEAR 19	YEAR 19	YEAR 191_1_1
Yes(ANSWER A) 1	Yes(ANSWER A) 1	Yes(ANSWER A) 1
No (ASK B & C) 2	No (ASK B & C) 2	No(ASK B & C) 2

111	111	
MONTH   _	MONTH	MONTH  I
111	<del></del>   <del></del>	1==1==
DAY   _	DAY   _1	DAY
111	111	1=-1=-
YEAR 19111	YEAR 19	YEAR 19

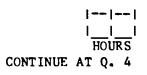
	C. Why did you happen to leave this job?  RECORD VERBATIM AND ENTER APPROPRIATE CODE.  IF MORE THAN ONE REASON GIVEN, PROBE: What was the one main reason?		SEC 10
	INVOLUNTARY REASONS:		
	LAYOFF, PLANT CLOSED, OR END OF TEMPORARY OR SEASONAL JOB	ENTER CODE:	ENTER CODE:   _
	VOLUNTARY REASONS:		
3.	QUIT BECAUSE FOUND A BETTER JOB		
J.	How many hours per week (do/did) you usually work at this job? ENTER # OF HOURS:	   _   HOURS	   _  HOURS
		NOW SKIP TO O. 7	CONTINUE AT A

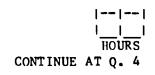


-89-

		SEC 10
 ENTER CODE:	 ENTER CODE:	 ENTER CODE:
IF CODE 14, SPECIFY BELOW:	IF CODE 14, SPECIFY BELOW:	IF CODE 14, SPECIFY BELOW:

	-			ı
	- 1			ı
			<u></u>	
	1	пО	JRS	
CONTINUE	ΑT	Q.	. 4	







		70	SEC 10
ANSV	VER QS 4-7 FOR COLUMNS 2-5 ONLY. COLUMN 1, SKIP TO Q		3EC 10
4.	INTERVIEWER: IS CODE 4-7 ON THE FLAP CIRCLED FOR THIS JOB?	//////////////////////////////////////	YES (SKIP TO Q. 7) 1 NO 2
5.	INTERVIEWER: HOW OLD IS R? (SEE SECTION 1, 0. 1B)		14-15 YEARS OLD (GO TO NEXT EMPLOYER OR SECTION 11, PAGE 112)
6A.	INTERVIEWER: DID R WORK ON THIS JOB LESS THAN 20 HOURS A WEEK OR 20 HOURS OR MORE A WEEK? (SEE Q. 3)		LESS THAN 20 HOURS A WEEK (GO TO Q 9) 1  20 HOURS OR MORE A VEAK 2
6B.	INTERVIEWER: DID R WORK AT THIS JOB LESS THAN 9 WEEKS OR 9 WEEKS OR MORE? (SEE QS 1 & 2A. IF NECESSARY, SEE CALENDAR FOR WEEK NUMBERS)		LESS THAN 9 MEEKS (CO TO) 1 9 WEEKS OR MORE 2
7.	And how many hours per day (do/did) you usually work at this job? ENTER # OF HOURS:	   <u> </u>   <u> </u>   HOURS	111 1-1-1 FOURS
8.	INTERVIEWER: SEE O. 1. WAS DATE ENTERFD BEFORE JAN. 1, 1978?	YES(ASK A) 1 NO (SKIP TO Q.9) 2	YES (ASK A) 1 NO (SKIP TO 0.9) 2
	IF YES, ASK A:  A. Before Jan. 1, 1978, were there any periods of one month or more during which you were not working for (EMPLOYER), not counting paid vacation or paid sick leave?	YES(ASK B&C) 1 NO(GO TO C) 2	YES(ASK B&C) 1 NO(GO TO C) 2
	B. IF YES TO A: What is the total number of months that you did work for (EMPLOYER) before Jan. 1, 1978? ENTER # OF MONTHS:	   <u> </u>   <u> </u>    MONTHS	!!! !_!_! MONTHS
	C. For all of the rest of the questions we have about 'EMPLOYER', please think nly of the time you worked for (EMPLOYER) ince Jan. 1, 1978.	<b>E</b> 1:-	

YES (SKIP TO Q. 7) 1 NO 2	YES (SKIP TO Q. 7) 1 NO 2	YES (SKIP TO Q. 7) 1 NO 2
14-15 YEARS OLD (GO TO NEXT EMPLOYER OR SECTION 11, PAGE )	14-15 YEARS OLD (GO TO NEXT EMPLOYER OR SECTION 11, PAGE )	14-15 YEARS OLD (GO TO NEXT EMPLOYER OR SECTION 11, PAGE 112)
16-22 YEARS OLD 2	16-22 YEARS OLD : 2	16-22 YEARS OLD 2
LESS THAN 20 HOURS A WEEK (GO TO Q 9)	LESS THAN 20 HOURS A WEEK (GO TO Q 9)	LESS THAN 20 HOURS A WEEK (GO TO Q 9)
1	1	1
20 HOURS OR MORE A WEEK 2	20 HOURS OR MORE A WEEK 2	20 HOURS OR MORE A WEEK 2
(GO TO Q 9)	LESS THAN 9 WEEKS (GO TO NEXT EMPLOYER OR SECTION 11,	LESS THAN 9 WEEKS (GO TO Q 9)
	PAGE ) 1	1
9 WEEKS OR MORE 2	9 WEEKS OR MORE 2	9 WEEKS OR MORE 2
   _   HOURS	   _   HOURS	   _  HOURS
YES(ASK A) 1 NO (SKIP TO 0.9) 2	YES(ASK A) 1 NO (SKIP TO 0.9) 2	YES(ASK A) 1 NO (SKIP TO 0.9) 2
YES (ASK B&C) 1	YES(ASK B&C) 1	YES(ASK B&C) 1
NO(GO TO C) 2	NO(GO TO C) 2	NO(GO TO C) 2
   _  MONTHS	111 1-1-1 MONTHS	!!! !!! MONTHS

9. For one reason or another, people often do not work for a week, a month, or even longer. For example, strikes, layoffs, and extended illnesses can cause people to miss work for a week or longer.

## SHOW R CALENDAR

Between (DATE STARTED/Jan. 1, 1978) and (DATE JOB ENDED/ now), were there any periods of a full week or more during which you did not work for this employer, not counting paid vacations and paid sick leave?

YES ..(ASK Q. 10). 1

NO (SKIP TO Q. 15) 2

NO (SKIP TO Q. 10F) 2



YES ..(ASK Q. 10). 1 YES ..(ASK Q. 10). 1 YES ..(ASK Q. 10). 1
NO (SKIP TO Q. 10F) 2 NO (SKIP TO Q. 10F) 2 NO (SKIP TO Q.10F) 2



IF '	YES, ASK Q. 10:		350 10
10A	Please show me on this	PERIOD 1	PERIOD 1
	calendar each period (since	FROM	
	Jan. 1, 1978) during which		FROM
	you didn't work for this	A.	A.
	employer for a full week	'!!!!	''''
	or more. PROBE: What	MONTH DAY YEAR	MONTH DAY YEAR
	other period was there	TO	TO
	during which you didn't	111111	11111
	work for this employer	<sup> </sup>	1_1 1 1 1 1
	for a full week or more?	MONTH DAY YEAR	MONTH DAY YEAR
	INDICATE ON ROW BOF CALENDAR	111	11
	DATE STARTED AND ENDED EACH	B. REASON CODE	B. REASON CODE
	PERIOD OF NOT WORKING FOR THIS	.—,—,	- KEASON COBE   _ I
	EMPLOYER. THEN ENTER DATES	C. IF CODE 14.	C IF CORE I/
	IN "A" HERE, MOST RECENT	SPECIFY:	C. IF CODE 14,
	FIRST. IF MORE THAN 4 SUCH	SPECIFI:	SPECIFY:
	PERIODS, ENTER IN "A" THE 4	<del></del>	
	MOST RECENT PERIODS AND ENTER	BERTON 3	
	THE TOTAL NUMBER HERE:	PERIOD 2	PERIOD 2
		FROM	' FRON
	<u> </u>	A.11111	A.
	111	'!!!!	
	(OFFICE USE)	— <del>—</del>	
	FOR EACH SET OF DATES ENTERED	MONTH DAY YEAR	MONTH DAY YEAR
	IN Q. 10, ASK B-E:		
	B(1)You said that you were not	TO	TO
	working for (EMPLOYER)	<del></del>	
	between (READ DATES IN	l <u></u> lt t t l	
	Q. 10). HAND CARD L.	MONTH DAY YEAR	MONTH DAY YEAR
	Which of the categories	2	TOTAL TERM
	listed on this card	111	
	best describes the main	B. REASON CODE:	B. REASON CODE
	reason why you were not	_''	D. KINSON CODE
	working for (EMPLOYER)	C. IF CODE 14,	C. IF CODE 14,
	during this period of	SPECIFY:	
	time? IF REASONS 1-4,	5.551. 1.	SPECIFY:
	ENTER ONE CODE IN B.		<del></del>
	IF REASON 5, ASK B(2).	PERIOD 3	DED TOD 3
		FROM	PERIOD 3
ì	CARD L		FROM
I 1)	On strike 01 ;	A.	A.
i 2)	On layoff 02		'!
. 3)	Quit job but returned	MONTH DAY YEAR	MONTH DAY YEAR
, ,, ,	lator to many and and		
	later to same employer . 03	TO	TO
. ~,	Job ended for a period of	111111	11111
!	time but later began	'!!!	!!!!
!	again 04	MONTH DAY YEAR	MONTH DAY YEAR
)	Some other reason for		
ŀ	which went on unpaid	111	111
1	vacation or unpaid	B. REASON CODE	B. REASON CODE
1	leave [ASK B(2)]	·—·—·	
		C. IF CODE 14.	C. IF CODE 14,
		SPECIFY:	SPECIFY:
	FOR EACH REASON 5, ASK B(2):		
	B(2)What was the reason you		<del></del>
	were on unpaid vacation	PERIOD 4	PERIOD 4
	or unpaid leave? HAND	FRON	FROM
	CARD M. RECORD REASON	A.1[][]	A.
	CODE IN B.		
	·	MONTH DAY YEAR	MONTH DAY YEAR
	CARD M	HOWEN BALL TEAM	MONTH DAY YEAR
6)	Going to school 06	то	TO
7)	Armed forces 07 !	11111	TO 
8)	Pregnancy 08		
9)	I had health problems 09	MONTH DAY YEAR	
10)	Problems with child care . 10	MUNTH DAY YEAR	MONTH DAY YEAR
11)	Other personal or		
	family reasons		
121	(For school employees only)	D. KENSON CORE [ _	B. REASON CODE [I1
,	School what does only)	C IF CORE !!	
131	School shut down 12   Did not want to work 13		C. IF CODE 14,
14)	Other reason (ASK C) 14 !	SPECIFY:	SPECIFY:
44,	cinc. reason (ASK C) 14		

FOR EACH REASON CODE 14 IN B,
ASK C:
C. What was the reason?
RECORD VERBATIM IN C.





PERIOD 1	PERIOD 1	PERIOD 1
FROM  A.        1	FROM  A.11111	FROM A.         1
TO  !!!	TO	TO 111111 
B. REASON CODE   1 1	B. REASON CODE 1 1	B. RFASON CODEII_1
C. IF CODE 14, SPECIFY:	C. IF CODE 14, SPECIFY:	C. IF CODE 14, SPECIFY:
PERIOD 2	PERTOD 2	PERIOD 2
FRON! A.        1	FROM A.1	FROM A.         '!
MONTH DAY YEAR	MONTH DAY YEAR	MONTH DAY YEAR
TO         1	TO	TO
B. REASON CODE	B. REASON CODE	B. PFASON CODE 1 1
C. IF CODE 14, SPECIFY:	C. IF CODE 14, SPECIFY:	C. IF CODE 14, SPECIFY:
nen Top 3		•
PERIOD. 3  FROM  A-11111  I	PERIOD 3  FROM  A.11111  1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	PERIOD 3  FROM  A.
FROM A.I.—.I.—.I.—.I.—.I. IIIIII	FROM A.       	FROM A.
FROM:  A.           1	FROM!  A.1        1	FROM  A.         MONTH DAY YEAR  TO
FROM:  A.           1	FROM:  A. 11111    MONTH DAY YEAR	FROM  A.         MONTH DAY YEAR  TO
FROM:  A.          1	FROM  A.1	FROM  A.         MONTH DAY YEAR  TO          MONTH DAY YEAR  B. REASON CODE
FROM:  A.          1	FROM  A.1	FROM  A.           MONTH DAY YEAR  TO           MONTH DAY YEAR  B. REASON CODE         C. IF CODE 14,  SPECIFY:  PERIOD 4  FROM  A.
FROM  A.          1	FROM  A.1	FROM  A.        MONTH DAY YEAR  TO           MONTH DAY YEAR       MONTH DAY YEAR  C. IF CODE 14, SPECIFY:  PERIOD 4  A.          MONTH DAY YEAR  TO
FROM:  A.	FROM  A.	FROM  A.            MONTH DAY YEAR  TO              MONTH DAY YEAR  B. REASON CODE       SPECIFY:  PERIOD 4  A.             MONTH DAY YEAR  TO              MONTH DAY YEAR              MONTH DAY YEAR
FROM:  A.         MONTH DAY YEAR  TO            MONTH DAY YEAR  B. REASON CODE       C. IF CODE 14, SPECIFY:  PER IOD 4  A.          MONTH DAY YEAR           MONTH DAY YEAR            MONTH DAY YEAR             MONTH DAY YEAR	FROM  A.        MONTH DAY YEAR  TO           MONTH DAY YEAR  B. PEASON CODE         C. IF CODE 14, SPECIFY:  PFRIOD 4  A.          MONTH DAY YEAR  TO            MONTH DAY YEAR	FROM  A.        MONTH DAY YEAR  TO           MONTH DAY YEAR  B. REASON CODE       PERIOD 4  A.          MONTH DAY YEAR  TO            MONTH DAY YEAR  TO            MONTH DAY YEAR            MONTH DAY YEAR  B. REASON CODE

10. D. FOR REASON CODES 03 OR 04, ERASE PORTION OF LINE ON CALENDAR FOR THIS EMPLOYER WHEN R WAS NOT WORKING.

FOR ALL OTHER REASON CODES, DRAW IN YELLOW OVER PORTIONS OF LINE FOR THIS EMPLOYER WHEN R WAS NOT WORKING.

10. E. IF ANY ADDITIONAL SETS OF DATES IN A FOR WHICH YOU HAVE NOT ASKED B & C, GO BACK AND ASK B & C ABOUT THEM NOW.

10.F.	INTERVIEWER: SEE QS 6A & 6B. WAS CODE 1 CIRCLED FOR EITHER OF THESE QUESTIONS?		YES (GO TO NEXT EMPLOYER OR TO SECTION 11, PAGE 112) 1
ASK FOR 11.	QS 11-14 FOR COLUMNS 2-5 ONLY.  COLUMN 1, SKIP TO Q. 15.  What kind of work did you usually do for (EMPLOYER)?  IF MORE THAN ONE KIND OF  WORK, PROBE: What kind of work did you do the longest for (EMPLOYER)? RECORD VERBATIM.		NO 2
12.	What were some of your main activities or duties? RECORD VERBATIM.	//////////////////////////////////////	
13.	What kind of business or industry was this? PROBE: What do they make or do? RECORD VERBATIM.	//////////////////////////////////////	
14.	HAND CARD N. Were you (READ CATEGORIES)		An employee of a private company, business, or individual for wages, salary, or commission (GO TO 0.15) 1  A government employee (ASK A). 2  Self-employed in own business, professional practice, or farm(ASK B). 3  Working without
		//////////////////////////////////////	pay in family business or farm (CO T (2.15) 4



YES (GO TO NEXT EMPLOYER OR TO SECTION 11, PAGE 112) 1	EMPLOYER OR TO SECTION 11, FAGE 112) 1	EMPLOYER OR TO SECTION 11, PAGE 112) 1
NO 2	NO 2	NO 2
		·
An employee of a private company, business, or individual for wages, salary, or commission (GO TO 0.15) 1	An employee of a private company, business, or individual for wages, salary, or commission (GO TO Q.15) 1	An employee of a private company, business, or individual for wages, salary, or commission (GO TO Q.15) 1
A government employee (ASK A). 2	A government employee (ASK A). 2	A government employee (ASK A). 2
Self-employed in own business, professional practice, or farm(ASK B). 3	Self-employed in own business, professional practice, or farm(ASK B). 3	Self-employed in own business, professional practice, or farm(ASK B). 3
Working without pay in family business or	Working without pay in family business or	Working without pay in family husiness or



	IF CODE 2 IN Q. 14, ASK A:		SEC 10
	A. Were you an employee of the federal government, state government, or	//////////////////////////////////////	Federal govern- ment employee 1
	local government?	//////////////////////////////////////	State government employee 2
		//////////////////////////////////////	Local government employee 3
		//////////////////////////////////////	DON'T KNOW 8
		//////////////////////////////////////	   GO TO Q. 15    ]
	B. Was your business incorporated or unincorporated?		Business incorporated 1 Business unincorporated 2
15.	Altogether, including tips, overtime, and bonuses, how much (do/did) you usually earn at that job? Please give me the amount you earn before deductions like taxes and Social Security are taken out.  ENTER IN APPROPRIATE BOXES. PROBE IF NECESSARY: Was that per hour, per day, per week, or what?		DON'T KNOW 8             ,       DOLLARS      AND     CENTS  Per hour 1  Per day 2  Per week 3  Bi-Weekly 4  Per month 5  Per year 6  OTHER (SPECIFY)
16.	INTERVIEWER: IS THIS JOB WITHOUT PAY IN A FAMILY BUSINESS OR FARM? (CODE 4 IN Q. 14)	YES (GO TO NEXT EMPLOYER OR SECTION 11, PAGE     2)	YES (GO TO NEXT EMPLOYER OR SECTION 11, PAGE 112)
		NO 2	NO 2



Federal govern- ment employee l	Federal govern- ment employee l	Federal govern- ment employee l
State government employee 2	State government employee 2	State government employee 2
Local government employee 3	Local government employee 3	Local government employee 3
DON'T KNOW 8	DON'T KNOW 8	DON'T KNOW 8
GO TO O. 15	GO TO Q. 15	GO TO O. 15
Business incorporated l	Business incorporated l	Business incorporated l
Business unincorporated 2	Business unincorporated 2	Business unincorporated 2
DON'T KNOW 8	DON'T KNOW 8	DON'T KNOW 8
	'	AND
Per hour 1 Per day 2 Per week 3 Bi-Weekly 4 Per month 5 Per year 6 OTHER (SPECIFY)	Per hour 1 Per day 2 Per week 3 Bi-Weekly 4 Per month 5 Per year 6 OTHER (SPECIFY)	Per hour
YES (GO TO NEXT EMPLOYER OR SECTION 11, PAGE 112)	YES (GO TO NEXT EMPLOYER OR SECTION 11, PAGE #2)1	YES (GO TO NEXT EMPLOYER OR SECTION 11, PAGE 1/2)
	NO 2	NO 2

	- /	00 -	SEC 10		
17.	(Are/Were) your wages or salary on this job set by a	Yes(ASK A-C) 1	Yes(ASK A-C) 1		
	collective bargaining agree- ment between your employer and a union or employee association?	No .(GO TO Q.18) 2	No .(GO TO Q.18) 2		
	IF YES, ASK A-C: HAND CARD O.  A. What (is/was) the name of this union or employee association? PROBE FOR AND RECORD COMPLETE NAME. ENTER CODE IF POSSIBLE.	ENTER     CODE:   _	ENTER     CODE:   _		
	Amalgamated Meat Cutters	IF CODE 996, SPECIFY:	IF CODE 996, SPECIFY:		
	and Butcher Workmen 102 American Federtion of State, County, and Municipal Employees (AFSCNE)	OR DON'T KNOW 998	OR DON'T KNOW 998		
	of America (CWA) 032  Hotel and Restaurant Employees and Bartenders International Union 068  International Association of Machinists and				
	Aerospace Workers (Machinists)				
	of Teamsters 173				
	Laborers International Union of North America . 079 Retail Clerks International	•			
	Association 154 Service Employees				
	International Union 162 United Automobile Workers	•			
	of America (UAW) 013 United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners				
	of America 024 United Steel Workers				
	of America				
	DON'T KNOW 998				
	B. (Are/Were) you a member of that union or employee	Yes 1	Yes 1		
	association?	No 2	No 2		



- 101-

SEC 10
Yes ..(ASK A-C)... 1 Yes ..(ASK A-C)... 1
No .(GO TO Q.18).. 2 No .(GO TO Q.18).. 2
No .(GO TO Q.18).. 2

**ENTER ENTER** 1--1--1 **ENTER** CODE: CODE: CODE: IF CODE 996, SPECIFY: IF CODE 996, SPECIFY: IF CODE 996, SPECIFY: OR OR OR DON'T KNOW .... 998 DON'T KNOW .... 998 DON'T KNOW .... 998



	C. INTERVIEWER: IS R		Sr.C 10
	CURRENTLY EMPLOYED AT THIS JOB? (SEE Q. 2)	YES .(GO TO Q.18). 1 NO(ASK D) 2	YES .(GO TO Q.18). 1 NO(ASY D) 2
	D. IF NO TO C: Are you currently a member of that union or employee association?	Yes 1 No 2	Yes 1 No 2
18.	INTERVIEWER: IS ONE OR MORE OF CODES 4-7 CIRCLED ON THE FLAP FOR THIS JOB?	YES (CONTINUE BELOW) 1	YES (CONTINUE BELOW)1
		NO (GO TO NEXT EMPLOYER OR SECTION 11, PAGE 112)	NO (GO TO NEXT EMPLOYER OR SECTION 11, PAGE 1/2)2
19.	You told me earlier that this job (is/was) part of a government-sponsored program. What was the name of the government program that		
	sponsored this job? RECORD VERBATIM.	   OFFICE USE:	OFFICE USE:
20.	A. As far as you know, (is/ was) this job part of a CETA Program?	Yes 1 No 2	Yes 1 No 2
	B. As far as you know, (is/was) this job (also) part of a WIN Program?	Yes 1 No 2	Yes 1 No 2
21.	Why did you decide to enter this program? RECORD VERBATIM AND CODE ONE ONLY.		
	Which one of these reasons was the most important to you?		
	·	TO MAKE MONEY 01 TO GET A BETTER JOB THAN COULD GET ON OWN 02	TO MAKE MONEY 01 TO GET A BETTER JOB THAN COULD GET ON OWN 02
		TO GET A JOB 03 TO GET JOB TRAINING OR	TO GET A JOB 03 TO GET JOB TRAINING OR
		TO HAVE SOME- THING TO DO 05	TO HAVE SOME- THING TO DO 05
		THE PROGRAM ACTI- VITIES SOUNDED	THE PROGRAM ACTI- VITIES SOUNDED
		INTERESTING 06 OTHER (SPECIFY) 08	INTERESTING 06 OTHER (SPECIFY) 08





	•	•	SEC 10
22.	We would like to know more about the kinds of services the program provided you. (First/Next) did this program provide you with (READ CATEGORIES A-C AND CODE "YES" OR "NO" FOR EACH)	Yes No	Yes No
		<del>-</del> -	
	A. Job counseling?	1 2	1 2
	B. Classroom training to prepare for a GED?	1 2	1 2
	C. On-the-job training?	1 2	1 2
23.	Did this program provide you with other classroom training in reading, writing, or arithmetic?	Yes(ASK A) 1 No .(GO TO Q.24) 2	Yes(ASK A) 1 No .(GO TO Q.24) 2
	A. IF YES: Was that class- room training part of a program of English as a second language—that is, a program for people who grew up speaking a language other than English?	Yes 1 No 2	Yes 1 No 2
24.	Did this program provide you with classroom training in other skills needed for certain types of jobs?	Yes (ASK A) 1 No. (GO TO Q 25) . 2	Yes(ASK A)1 No.(GO TO Q 25).2
•	A. IF YES: What kind of job were you being trained for? RECORD VERBATIM.		
25.	Did this program place you on a job outside the program?	Yes(ASK A) 1 No .(GO TO Q. 26). 2	Yes(ASK A) 1 No .(GO TO Q. 26). 2
	A. IF YES: Was the job you were placed in a CETA or Public Service Employment (PSE) job?	Yes(ASK B) 1 No .(GO TO Q.26) 2	Yes(ASK B) 1 No .(GO TO 0.26) 2
	B. IF YES TO A: In addition to being placed in a CETA or PSE job, were you also placed in a job outside that program?	Yes 1 No 2	Yes 1 No 2



	Yes	No		Yes	No		Yes	<u>No</u>
	1	2		1	2		1	2
	1	2		1	2		1	2
	1	2		. 1	2		1	2
	ASK A)			ASK A).		Yes(A		
				•••••		Yes No		
Yes	(ASK A)	)1 25)2	Yes . No	.(ASK A (GO TO	)1 Q 25).2	Yes No(G	(ASK A O TO G	A)1 2 25).2
	(ASK A). O TO Q.			(ASK A).		Yes( No .(GO		
	.(ASK B) O TO Q.2			.(ASK B) O TO Q.2		Yes No .(GO		
	• • • • • • •			• • • • • • •		Yes		



	•	•	SEC 10
26.	Did this program provide you with (READ CATECORIES AND CODE "YES" OR "NO" FOR EACH)	<u>Yes</u> No	<u>Yes</u> No
	A. Extra help in preparing for college?	1 2	i 2
	B. Health care or medical services?	1 2	1 2
	C. Childcare?	1 2	1 2
	D. Transportation?	1 2	1 2
27.	Did this program provide you with any other kinds of services?  A. IF YES: where other kinds of services? RECORD VERBATIM.	Yes(ASK A) 1 No .(GO TO Q.28) 2	Yes(ASK A) 1 No .(GO TO 0.28) 2
28.	We would also like to know how you feel about this program.		
	First, how difficult or easy (is/was) the work you (have/had) to perform in this programvery difficult, fairly difficult, not too difficult, fairly easy, or very easy?	Very difficult 1 Fairly difficult . 2 Not too difficult. 3 Fairly easy 4 Very easy 5	Very difficult 1 Fairly difficult . 2 Not too difficult. 3 Fairly easy 4 Very easy 5
29.	And how about the discipline in the program——(is/was) it very tough, fairly tough, not too tough, fairly easy, or very easy?	Very tough 1 Fairly tough 2 Not too tough 3 Fairly easy 4 Very easy 5	Very tough 1 Fairly tough 2 Not too tough 3 Fairly easy 4 Very easy 5
30.	How (does/did) the training or experience you received in this program affect your chances of getting a good jobdo you feel that your		<b>,</b>
	chances of getting a good job (are/were) improved or	Improved 1	Improved 1
	not improved?	Not improved 2	Not improved 2
31.	INTERVIEWER: SEE CALENDAR. HAS R HAD A JOB SINCE HE LEFT	YES .(ASK Q. 32) 1	YES .(ASK Q. 32) 1
	THIS PROGRAM?	NO (SKIP TO Q.33). 2	NO (SKIP TO Q.33). 2



	Yes	No	<u> Y</u>	es.	No	•	Yes	No
	1	2		1	2		1	2
	1	2		1	2		1	2
	1	2		1	2		1	2
	1	2	,	1	2		1	2
Yes(GO			Yes(A			Yes( No .(GO		
Fairly		ult. 3	Very diff Fairly di Not too d Fairly ea Very easy	ffict iffic sy ••	ult - 2 cult. 3	Very di Fairly Not too Fairly Very ea	diffict diffice easy	ult . 2 cult. 3
Fairly Not too Fairly	tough or tough easy or tough	2 3	Very toug Fairly to Not too t Fairly ea Very easy	ough cough asy •	2 3	Not too Fairly	tough tough easy .	1 2 3 4
Not im	ed proved ASK Q. IP TO O	2	Improved  Not improved  YES (AS	oved K Q.	2 32) 1	Not imp	proved	32) 1 (.33). 2



IF Y	ES T	O Q. 31, ASK Q. 32. E, SKIP TO Q. 33.		SEC 10
32.	Aft did	er you left the program, the training or experience	Helped (ASK A) 1	, , , ,
	<u>hel</u>	received in this program  p you or not help you in  in performing any job?	Did not help (ASK B) 2	Did not help (ASK B)2
	Α.	IF YES: In what way has this training or experience helped you on a job? RECORD VERBATIM AND CODE ALL THAT APPLY.		
			LEARNED NEW JOB SKILLS 01 LEARNED HOW TO WORK WITH OTHER PEOPLE 02 GAVE ME WORK EXPERIENCE 03 OTHER (SPECIFY)	LEARNED NEW JOB SKILLS 01 LEARNED HOW TO WORK WITH OTHER PEOPLE 02 GAVE ME WORK EXPERIENCE 03 OTHER (SPECIFY)
			   NOW GO TO Q.33	   NOW GO TO Q.33
	В.	IF NO: Why has the training or experience not been of help in any job? RECORD VERBATIM AND CODE ALL THAT APPLY.		
			THERE ARE NO JOBS OR I WAS NOT ABLE TO FIND ANY JOBS IN THAT LINE OF WORK	THERE ARE NO JOBS OR I WAS NOT ABLE TO FIND ANY JOBS IN THAT LINE OF WORK

Helped (ASK A) 1	Helped (ASK A) 1	Helped (ASK A) 1
Did not help (ASK B)2	Did not help (ASK B) 2	Did not help (ASK B) 2
LEARNED NEW  JOB SKILLS 01  LEARNED HOW TO  WORK WITH OTHER  PEOPLE 02  CAVE ME WORK  EXPERIENCE 03  OTHER (SPECIFY)	LEARNED NEW JOB SKILLS 01 LEARNED HOW TO WORK WITH OTHER PEOPLE 02 CAVE ME WORK EXPERIENCE 03 OTHER (SPECIFY)	LEARNED NEW JOB SKILLS 01 LEARNED HOW TO WORK WITH OTHER PEOPLE 02 CAVE ME WORK EXPERIENCE 13 OTHER (SPECIFY)
NOW GO TO Q.33	NOW GO TO Q.33	NOW GO TO 0.33
IN THAT LINE OF WORK	THERE ARE NO JOBS OR I WAS NOT ABLE TO FIND ANY JOBS IN THAT LINE OF WORK	IN THAT LINE OF WORK
I WAS NOT ABLE TO DO THAT KIND OF WORK	I WAS NOT ABLE TO DO THAT KIND OF WORK	I WAS NOT ABLE TO DO THAT KIND OF WORK



22	Properties and the second second		SEC_10
33.	everything considered, what one thing (do/did) you like most about this program?  PROBE FOR CLARITY ONLY.  RECORD VERBATIM.		
		THE JOB ITSELF 01 THE SUPERVISOR(S) 02 THE CO-WORKER(S). 03 THE PAY/MAKING MONEY 04 HAVING SOMETHING TO DO 05 THE CHANCE TO LEARN 06 EVERYTHING 07 NOTHING 08 OTHER (SPECIFY)	THE JOB ITSELF . 01 THE SUPERVISOR(S) 02 THE CO-WORKER(S) . 03 THE PAY/MAEING MONEY
34.	What one thing (do/did) you dislike most about this program? PROBE FOR CLARITY ONLY RECORD VERBATIM.		
		THE JOB ITSELF 01 THE SUPERVISOR(S) 02 THE CO-WORKER(S). 03 THE PAY 04 EVERYTHING 05 NOTHING 06 OTHER (SPECIFY)	THE JOB ITSELF 01 THE SUPERVISOR(S) 02 THE CO-WORKEN(S) 03 THE PAY
35.	Thinking back over your entire experience in this program, how satisfied or dissatisfied are you with it overall—very satisfied, somewhat satisfied, somewhat dissatisfied, or very dissatisfied?	Very satisfied 1 Somewhat satisfied 2 Somewhat dis- satisfied 3 Very dissatisfied. 4	Very satisfied 1 Somewhat satisfied 2 Somewhat dis- satisfied 3 Very dissatisfied . 4
36.	INTERVIEWER: ARE THERE ANY ADDITIONAL EMPLOYERS LISTED ON THE EMPLOYER FLAP NOT YET ASKED ABOUT?	YES (GO BACK TO PAGE <b>%</b> AND ASK THE APPROPRIATE QUESTIONS FOR THE NEXT JOB OR JOB PROGRAM)1 NO (GO TO SECTION 11) 2	YES (CO BACK TO PAGE # AND ASK THE APPPOPRIATE QUESTIONS FOR THE NEXT AND APPROPRIATE NO (GO TO SECTION 11)2



THE JOB ITSELF 01	THE JOP ITSELF 01	THE JOB UTSELF 01
THE SUPERVISOR(S) 02	THE SUPERVISOR(S) 02	THE SUPERVISOP(S) 02
THE CO-WORKER(S). 03	THE CO-MORKER(S). 03	THE CO-WORKER(S). 03
THE PAY/MAKING	THE PAY/MAKING	THE PAY/MAKING
MONEY 04	MONEY 04	M'.NEY
HAVING SCHETHING	HAVING SOMETHING	HAVING SOMETHING
	TO DO 05	TO 90 05
TO DO 05	THE CHANCE TO	THE CHANCE TO
THE CHANCE TO	LEARN 06	IFAFN 06
LEARN 06	EVERYTHING 67	EVERYTHING 07
EVERYTHING 07		NOTHING 08
NOTHING 08	NOTHING 08	OTHER (SPECIFY)
THER (SPECIFY)	OTHER (SPECIFY)	•
	09	c <b>9</b>
THE IOD ITCHE OF	THE JOB ITSELF 01	THE JOB ITSELF 01
THE JOB ITSELF 01	THE SUPERVISOR(S) 02	THE SUPERVISOR(S) 02
THE SUPERVISOR(S) 02	THE CO-WORKER(S). 03	THE CO-WORKER(S). 03
THE CO-WORKER(S). 03		THE PAY 04
THE PAY 04	THE TALL BURNEY	EVERYTHING 05
EVERYTHING 05	EVERYTHING 05	NOTHING 06
NOTHING 06	NOTHINC 06	
OTHER (SPECIFY)	OTHER (SPECIFY)	OTHER (SPECIFY)
07	07	07
ery satisfied l	Very satisfied 1	Very satisfied l
Somewhat satisfied 2	Somewhat satisfied 2	Somewhat satisfied 2
Somewhat dis-	Somewhat dis-	Somewhat dis-
satisfied 3	satistied 3	satisfied 3
Very dissatisfied. 4	Very dissatisfied. 4	Very dissatisfied. 4
very (rissuctionized)	,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	·
(00 PAGY TO	WES ACO BACK TO	YES (GO BACK TO
YES (GO BACK TO	YES (GO BACK TO	TAGE 86 AND ASK
PAGE 86 AND ASK	FAGE <b>\$6</b> AND ASE	
THE APPROPRIATE	THE APPROPRIATE	THE APPROPRIATE
OUTSTIONS FOR	QUESTIONS FOR	QUESTIONS FOR
THE NEXT FOR OR	THE NEXT JOB OF	THE NEXT JOB OR
JOB OH (HAM)1	COB PROGRAM)1	POGRAM)I
NO (GO TO	::0 (GO TO	NO (GC TO
SECTION 11) 2	SECTION 11) 2	SECTION 11) 2



## SECTION 11 ON LAST JOB LASTING 2 WEEKS OR MORE

1.	INTERVIEWER: IS R. CURRENTLY ON ACTIVE DUTY IN THE ACTIVE FORCES? (SEE ROW A, CALENDAR)" YES(SKIP TO SECTION 12)1 NO2
2.	A. INTERVIEWER: SEE EMPLOYER FLAP. IS THERE AN EMPLOYER LISTED IN COLUMN 1 FOR JOB R HAD LAST WEEK?
	YES(SKIP TO SECTION 12) 1 NO 2
	B. INTERVIEWER: SEE Q. 11, SECTION 10, SECOND COLUMN.  IS THERE AN ENTRY IN COLUMN 2 FOR Q. 11  "KIND OF WORK R DID"?
	YES(SKIP TO SECTION 12) 1 NO 2
3.	When did you <u>last</u> work at a regular job or business lasting 2 consecutive weeks or more, either full- or part-time?
	 ENTER MONTH
	AND   -  YEAR 19    OR
	NEVER WORKED AT ALL .(SKIP TO SECTION 13)0001
4.	INTERVIEWER: IS R. CURRENTLY ENROLLED IN REGULAR SCHOOL? (SEE CALENDAR, Q.1)
	YES(SKIP TO SECTION 12) 1 NO 2
5.	INTERVIEWER, CODE: YEAR ENTERED IN Q. 3 WAS:
	1974-1979 1
	1973 OR BEFORE 1973(SKIP TO SECTION 12) 2
6.	For whom did you work?
7.	What kind of husiness or industry was this?



-113-

What kind of work (EMPLOYER)?	did you do the longest for
	ost important activities or duties?
	, i, i, i, i, i, i, i, i, i, i, i, i, i,
HAND CARD P. We	ere you(READ CATEGORIES)
	An employee of a <u>private company</u> , business, or individual for wages, salary, or commission 1
	A government employee(ASK A) 2
	Self employed in own business, professiona practice, or farm
	Working without pay in family  Nusiness o farm
IF CODE 2 IN Q.  A. Were you an government,	10, ASK A: n employee of the federal government, state , or local government?
	Federal government employee 1
	State government employee 2
	Local government employee 3
	DON'T KNOW 8
	NOW GO TO SECTION 12
IF CODE 3 IN Q B. Was your b	. 10, ASK B: usiness incorporated or unincorporated?
-	Business incorporated 1
	Business unincorporated 2
	5.8



SECTION 12 ON WORK EXPERIENCE PRIOR TO JAN. 1, 1978

ı	•	INTERVIEWER:	IS	R

14-19 YEARS OLD, OR..(SKIP TO 0.5)...... 1

20-22 YEARS OLD?..... 2

2. INTERVIEWER, SEE Q. 1, SECTION 1 AND ENTER THE YEAR OF R'S BIRTH BELOW. ADD "18" TO THIS YEAR. THEN GO TO Q. 3.

18

YEAR OF R'S BIRTH 19

SUM 19

3. INTERVIEWER: IN Q.4 BELOW, CROSS OUT THE COLUMNS FOR ANY YEARS PRIOR TO THE YEAR IN WHICH R TURNED 18 (SEE SUM IN Q.2).

FOR EACH YEAR NOT CROSSED OUT, ASK QS 4A & 4B BEFORE GOING ON TO THE NEXT, START WITH 1977 AND WORK BACKWARDS.

4. A. From January 1st of (YEAR) to December 31st of that year, about how many weeks in all were you working for pay, not counting work around the house or military service? ENTER IN A BELOW.

(IF NO WEEKS WORKED DURING THAT YEAR, ENTER "OO" AND REASK A FOR THE NEXT YEAR. IF NO NEXT YEAR, GO TO Q.5)

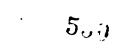
FOR EACH YEAR IN WHICH THERE IS AN ENTRY OTHER THAN "00," ASK B BEFORE GOING ON TO THE NEXT YEAR. IF NO MIXT YEAR, GO TO Q.5.

B. Please think of the time that you worked during that year. During this time, about how many hours a week did you usually work? ENTER IN B BELOW. THEN GO BACK TO A FOR THE NEXT YEAR. IF NO NEXT YEAR, GO TO Q.5.

		1977	1976	1975
Α.	NUMBER OF WEEKS WORKED	 	 	 
В.	NUMBER OF HOURS A WEEK	           _   HRS/WK	 	 



5.	INTERVIEWER, SEE CALENDAR. DURING ANY PART OF THE PERIOD BETWEEN JAN. 1, 1978 AND NOW, WAS R ENROLLED IN REGULAR SCHOOL? (Q.1 CODED 1, OR DATE IN Q.2 AFTER JAN. 1, 1978.)	SEC	
	YES (SKIP TO SECTION 13) 1 NO 2		
6.	INTERVIEWER, SEE Q.2 ON CALENDAR FOR DATE R WAS LAST ENROLLED IN REGULAR SCHOOL.		
7.	Now I'd like to know about the <u>first</u> job at which you worked for at tlast two months after you stopped going to school in the LAST ENROLLED IN REGULAR SCHOOL). For whom did you work at this job? ENTER BELOW.		
	OR NEVER WORKED FOR AT LEAST TWO MONTHS (SKIP TO SECTION 13)1  A. How many hours a week did you usually work for this job		
	with (EMPLOYER)less than 20 hours a week, or 20 hours a week or more?		
	less than 20 hours a week(ASK B) l		
	20 hours a week or more(TRANSFER EMPLOYER NAME FROM ABOVE INTO LINE AT C BELOW)		
	B. IF LESS THAN 20 HOURS, ASK: Since you left regular school, what was the first job at which you worked for at least 2 months and at least 20 hours a week? ENTER EMPLOYER NAME AT C BELOW.		
	OR NEVER WORKED AT SUCH A JOB (SKIP TO SECTION 13) 2		



C		
N	low I'd like IN Q.7C). Whe	to ask a few questions about your job with (EMPLOYE en did you first start working for (EMPLOYER)?
		ENTER     MONTH       AND     YEAR 19
W	hen did you	last stop working for (EMPLOYER)?
		ENTER     MONTH         AND     YEAR 19
		OR
		CURRENTLY WORKING FOR EMPLOYER (SKIP TO SECTION 13)
$\frac{1}{J}$	NTERVIEWER, AN. 1. 1978?	SEE DATES IN QS. 8 & 9. IS EITHER DATE AFTER
		YES(SKIP TO SECTION 13) 1
		NO 2
wi d:	hat kind of id they make	business or industry was this? PROBE: What or do? RECORD VERBATIM.
	id they make	or do? RECORD VERBATIM.
	id they make  What kind o	business or industry was this? PROBE: What or do? RECORD VERBATIM.  f work did you usually do for (EMPLOYER)? N ONE KIND OF WORK, PROBE: What kind of work the longest for (EMPLOYER)? RECORD VERBATIM.
	id they make  What kind o	f work did you usually do for (EMPLOYER)? N ONE KIND OF WORK, PROBE: What kind of work
- A.	What kind o IF MORE THA did you do	f work did you usually do for (EMPLOYER)? N ONE KIND OF WORK, PROBE: What kind of work
- A.	What kind o IF MORE THA did you do  What were s	f work did you usually do for (EMPLOYER)?  N ONE KIND OF WORK, PROBE: What kind of work the longest for (EMPLOYER)? RECORD VERBATIM.
A. B.	What kind o IF MORE THA did you do  What were so VERBATIM.	f work did you usually do for (EMPLOYER)?  N ONE KIND OF WORK, PROBE: What kind of work the longest for (EMPLOYER)? RECORD VERBATIM.
A. B.	What kind o IF MORE THA did you do  What were so VERBATIM.	f work did you usually do for (EMPLOYER)?  N ONE KIND OF WORK, PROBE: What kind of work the longest for (EMPLOYER)? RECORD VERBATIM.  ome of your main activities or duties? RECORD
A. How	What kind of IF MORE THAT did you do  What were so VERBATIM.	f work did you usually do for (EMPLOYER)?  N ONE KIND OF WORK, PROBE: What kind of work the longest for (EMPLOYER)? RECORD VERBATIM.  ome of your main activities or duties? RECORD  per week did you usually work at this job?



15	Altogether, including tips, overtime, and bonuses, how much did
	you usually earn at that job? please give me the amount you
	earned before deductions like taxes and social security were
	taken out. ENTER IN APPROPRIATE BOXES. PROBE IF NECESSARY:
	Was that per hour, ser day, per week, or what?
	ii_i,ii_i_i
	DOLLARS CENTS
	The state of the s
	PER HOUR 01
	PER DAY 02
	PER WELK 07
	BI-WEELLY (EVERY
	TWO WE KS) 04
	PER MONTH 05
	PER YEAR 06
	OTHER (SPECIFY).
	07
16.	Why did you bappen to leave this job? BECORD VERBALIM
	AND CODE ONE ONLY.
	INVOLUNTARY
	LAYOFF, PLANT CLOSED. OF END OF THOPOPARY OR
	SEASONAL JOB
	DISCHARGED OR FIRED
	PROGRAM ENDED
	VOLUNTARY
	ONIT BECAUSE FOUND A BETTLE JOB
	QUIT BECAUSE OF EMPLOYMENT CONDITIONS (DION'T LIKE
	WIT DEGREE OF ENFLORMENT CONDITIONS VELVE I LIKE
	WORK, HOURS, WORKING CONDITIONS, OF LOCATION, DIDN'T
	WORK, HOURS, WORKING CONDITIONS, OF LOCATION, DIDN'T GET ALONG WITH OTHER EMPLOYERS OR BOSS)
	WORK, HOURS, WORKING CONDITIONS, OF LOCATION, DIDN'T GET ALONG WITH OTHER EMPLOYERS OR BOSS)
	WORK, HOURS, WORKING CONDITIONS, OF LOCATION, DIDN'T GET ALONG WITH OTHER EMPLOYERS OR BOSS)
	WORK, HOURS, WORKING CONDITIONS, OF GOCATION, DIDN'T GET ALONG WITH OTHER EMPLOYERS OR BOSS)
	MORK, HOURS, WORKING CONDITIONS, OF LOCATION, DIDN'T GET ALONG WITH OTHER EMPLOYERS OR BOSS)
	MORK, HOURS, WORKING CONDITIONS, OF LOCATION, DIDN'T GET ALONG WITH OTHER EMPLOYERS OR BOSS)
	WORK, HOURS, WORKING CONDITIONS, OF LOCATION, DIDN'T GET ALONG WITH OTHER EMPLOYERS OR BOSS)
	WORK, HOURS, WORKING CONDITIONS, OF LOCATION, DIDN'T GET ALONG WITH OTHER EMPLOYERS OR BOSS)
	WORK, HOURS, WORKING CONDITIONS, OF LOCATION, DIDN'T GET ALONG WITH OTHER EMPLOYERS OR BOSS)



1.	INTERVIEWER: IS R PRESENTLY ENROLLED IN GRADES 1-12? (SEE Q. 1 ON CALENDAR)
	YES(SKIP TO SECTION 14) 1
	NO 2
2.	(Besides the jobs you already told me about,) Since January 1, 1978, have you received skills training from a government-sponsored program such as CETA, the Job Corps, or any of these other government-sponsored programs where young people who are not attending regular school are provided with skills training? (HAND CARD Q)
	Yes(ASK A-C)
	No 2
	IF YES, ASK A-C:  A. What is the name of the school or agency where you've received this training? RECORD IN Q. 6 BELOW.
	<ul> <li>B. What is the name of the government program that sponsors this training? RECORD IN Q. 7 BELOW.</li> <li>C. PROBE: Since January 1, 1978, have you participated in any other government-sponsored training programs? IF YES, GO BACK TO A FOR NEXT PROGRAM.</li> </ul>
3.	Before January 1, 1978. did you ever participate in any of these kinds of government-sponsored training programs? (HAND CARD O)
	Yes(ASK Q. 4)
	No(SKIP TO Q. 5) 2



IF YES TO Q. 3, ASK Q. 4:

4. What were the names of the government-sponsored training programs in which you've participated before January 1, 1978? LIST BELOW. PROBE: What others?

FOR EACH LISTED, ASK QS.A-C:

NAMES OF PROCRAMS   Deing trained for? RECORD   Program or plete/lea				
pleted complete program program:	being trained plete this for? RECORD program or	- C. In what year did you (com- plete/leave) this program?		
1 2 19	pleted compi	ete an		
2	1 2	19 1_1_1		
3	1 2	; 19   <u> </u>		
4 1 2 19 1_1	i 2	 19   <u> </u>		
	1 2	 19   <u> </u>		
5 1 2 19 1	 1 2	 19  _  55		



5.4

5. INTERVIEWER: IF THERE ARE ANY PROGRAMS ENTERED IN 0S 6-7, ASK QS 8-34 NOW. OTHERWISE, SKIP TO SECTION 14.

		COLUMN #1	COLUMN #2
6.	ENTER NAME OF SCHOOL OR AGENCY WHERE R RECEIVED TRAINING:		
7.	ENTER NAME OF THE COVERNMENT PROGRAM THAT SPONSORS THIS TRAINING:		
8.	You told me that you received skills training at (ENTRY IN 6) through the (ENTRY IN 7). When did you start participating in this program?	MONTH	MONTH  _       DAY  _ -
9.	Are you currently participating in	YEAR 19	YEAR 19
	this program?	Yes(SKIP TO Q. 11) 1 No(ASK Q. 10) 2	Yes(SKIP TO Q. 11) 1 No(ASK Q. 10) 2
	When did you stop participating in this program? PROBE FOR AND RECORD MONTH, DAY, AND YEAR.	 	 
5	$\hat{\mathfrak{g}}$	 DAY	DAY  _ _
~ 		 YEAR 19	537 YEAR 19

**SEC 13** 11. For a variety of reasons, people ofter do not participate in their programs some of the time. Between (DATE IN Q. 8) and (now/DATE IN C. 10). were there any periods of a full week or more during which you did not participate in this Yes ...... (ASK A).... 1 program? Yes ...... (ASK A).... 1 No .....(GO TO Q. 12)... 2 No ....(GO TO C. 12)... 2 A. IF YES: Between (DATE IN Q. 8) and (now/DATE IN Q. 10), for how many # WEEKS # WEEKS weeks, altogether, did you not participate in this program? 12. How many hours a week (do/did) you usually spend in the program? |--|--| |--|--| ENTER / OF HOURS # HOURS # HOURS 13. How many hours a day (do/did) you usually spend in the program? |--|--| ENTER # OF HOURS # HOURS # HOURS 1 1 1 14. A. As far as you know, (is/was) this training Yes ..... Yes ..... part of a CETA program? No ..... No ..... B. As far as you know, (is/was) this training (also) part of a

No .....

**5**38

WIN program?

enter this t program? RECORD VERBA IF MORE THAN GIVEN, PROBE What was the reason?	RECORD VERBATIM.  IF MORE THAN ONE REASON  CIVEN, PROBE:  What was the one main		SEC 13
		TO GET MONEY	TO CET MONEY
16.	INTERVIEWER, IS R CURRENTLY PARTICI- PATING IN THIS PRO- GRAM? ("YFS" TO Q. 9)	YES(SKIP TO Q. 18). 1	YES(SKIP TO Q. 18). 1
		NO 2	NO 2

17.	Did you complete this	-123-		SEC 13		
174	training program or not?	Completed this program .(GO TO Q. 18) Did not complete this program .(ASK A).		Completed this program .(GO TO Q. 1 Did not complete this program .(ASK A		
	A. IF CODE 2: Why did you leave this program? RECORD VERBATIM. IF MORE THAN ONE REASON CIVEN, PROBE: What was the main reason? CODE ONE ONLY.		<del></del>			
			_			
		EXPELLED FROM PROGRAM  QUIT BECAUSE FOUND A JOB  WAS TRANSFERRED TO  ANOTHER PROGRAM  DISSATISFIED WITH PAY	.02 .03	EXPELLED FROM PROGRAM  QUIT BECAUSE FOUND A JOB.  WAS TRANSFERRED TO  ANOTHER PROGRAM  DISSATISFIED WITH PAY	02 03	
		UNSATISFACTORY CONDITIONS . LOST INTEREST TOO DIFFICULT PROBLEMS WITH	05 06	UNSATISFACTORY CONDITIONS LOST INTEREST TOO DIFFICULT PROBLEMS WITH	• 05 • 06	
		TRANSPORTATION TOO MUCH TIME INVOLVED PREGNANCY OWN ILLNESS OR DISABILITY .	09 10	TRANSPORTATION TOO MUCH TIME INVOLVED PREGNANCY OWN ILLNESS OR DISABILITY	•• 09 •• 10	
		OTHER PERSONAL OR FAMILY REASONS MOVED OTHER (SPECIFY)		OTHER PERSONAL OR FAMILY REASONS MOVED OTHER (SPECIFY)	12	
18.	We would like to know more about the kinds of services the program provided you. (First/Next) did this program provide you with		14		14	
542	(READ CATEGORIES A & B AND CODE "YES" OR "NO" FOR EACH)	YES	NO	YES	NO	<b>5</b> 40
	A. Job counseling?	1	2	1	2	543
ERIC Full Task Provided by ERIC	B. Classroom training to prepare for a GED?	1	2	1	2	

		164	SEC	2 13
19.	Did this program provide you with other classroom training in reading, writing, or arithmetic?	Yes(ASK A) No(GO TO Q. 20)		Yes(ASK A) 1 No(GO TO Q. 20) 2
	A. IF YES: Was that classroom training part of a program of English as a second language—that is, a program for people who grew up speaking a language other than English?	Yes		Yes 1
		No	2	No 2
20.	Did this program provide you with classroom training in other skills needed for certain types of jobs?	Yes(ASK A)	1	Yes(ASK A) 1
		No(GO TO Q. 21)	2	No(GO TO Q. 21) 2
	A. IF YES: What kind of job were you being trained for? RECORD VERBATIM.		- ·	

21.	Did this program place	- 125-	SEC 13
	you on a job <u>outside</u> the program?	Yes(ASK A) 1	Yes(ASK A) 1
		No(GO TO Q. 22) 2	No(GO TO Q. 22) 2
	A. IF YES: Was the job you were placed in a CETA or Public Service Employment		
	PSEjob?	Yes(ASK B) 1	Yes(ASK B) 1
		No(GO TO Q. 22) 2	No(GO TO Q. 22) 2
	B. IF YES TO A: In  addition to being placed in a CETA or PSE job, were you also placed in a job outside that		
	program?	Yes 1	Yes 1
		No 2	No 2
22.	Did this program provide you with a job, (other) work experience or on-the-job training?	Yes(ASK A) 1	Yes(ASK A) 1
	A. IF YES: What kind of job were you doing or being trained for? RECORD VERBAT'M.	No 2	No 2
		<del></del>	

		100		SEC 13	
23.	Did this program provide you with (READ CATEGORIES AND CODE "YES" OR "NO"			off 12	
	FOR EACH)	YES	NO	YES	Nu
	A. Extra help in preparing for college?	1	2	1	2
	B. Health care or medical services?	1	2	1	2
	C. Childcare?	1	2	1	2
	D. Transportation?	1	2	1	2
24.	Did this program provide you with any other kinds of services?	Yes(ASK A)	1	Yes(ASK A)	1
		No(GO TO Q. 25)	2	%(GO TO Q. 25)	2
	A. IF YES: What other kinds of services? RECORD VERBATIM		-		_
	-		-		
	-		-		
	-		<del>.</del>		•

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[presently receive/have receive(d)] through public assistance or Unemployment Compensation (do/while you were in the program, did) you receive any money for participating in this program?

Yes(AGK A)	ì	Yes(ASK A)	i
No(GO TO 0. 26)	2	No(G) TO Q. 26)	2

A. IF YES: How much money (do/did) you usually receive for participating in this program? Please give me the amount you receive(d) before any deductions like axes and social security (are/were) taken out.

PROBE IF NACESSARY: (Is was) that per hour, per day, per week, or what?

DOLLARS CENTS	r	DOLLARS CENTS	
Per hour  Per day  Her week  Bi-Weekly (every 2 weeks)  Per month  Po year  OTHER (SPECIFY)	2 3 4 5	Per hour  Per day  Per week  Bi-Weekly (every 2 weeks)  Per month  Per year  OTHER (SPECIFY)	2 3 4 5
	•		

|--|--| |--|--| |--|--|

-----

26. We would also like to know how you feel about this program.

First, how difficult or easy (is/was) the work you (have/had) to perform in this program—very difficult, fairly difficult, not too difficult, fairly easy, or very easy?

27. And how about the discipline in the program—(is/was) it very tough, fairly tough, not too tough, fairly easy, or very easy?

Very tough..</th

28. How (does/did) the training

or experience you received in this program affect your
chances of getting a
good job--do you feel
that your chances of
getting a good job (are/
were) improved or not
improved?



29.	INTERVIEWER: SEE CALENDAR. HAS R HAD A JOB SINCE HE LEFT THIS	-124-	
	PROGRAM?	YES (ASK Q. 30) 1	YES (ASK Q. 30) 1
		NO (SKIP TO Q. 31) 2	NO (SKIP TO Q. 31) 2
	MES TO Q. 29, ASK Q. 30. ERWISE, SKIP TO Q. 31.		
30.	After you left the program, did the training or experience you received in this program help you or not help you in performing any job?		
		<b>Helped</b> (ASK A) 1	Helped (ASK A) 1
		Did not help (ASK B) 2	Did not help (ASK B) 2
	A. IF YES: In what way has this training or exper- ience helped you on a job? RECORD VERBATIM AND CODE ALL THAT APPLY.		
	OOD HAD THE MIST		
۳,	- 1	LEARNED NEW JOB SKILLS 0: LEARNED HOW TO WORK	LEARNED NEW JOB STOLLS 01 LEARNED HOW TO MORE
55	24	WITH OTHER PEOPLE 02 GAVE ME EXPERIENCE USEFUL	NITH OTHER PENTLE 02  GAVE ME EXPERI CE 1 75 UL
		FOR LATER WORK/TRAINING 03 OTHER (SPECIFY)	FOR LATER WORL TRAIL INC 03 OTHER (SPECIFY)
		0.1	^/

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NOW GO TO Q. 31

NOW Go TO Q. 31

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	B. <u>IF NO</u> : Why has	-130-	SEC 13
	this training or experience not been of help in any job? RECORD VERBATIM AND CODE ALL THAT		
	APPLY.	THERE ARE NO JOBS OR I WAS NOT ABLE TO FIND ANY JOBS IN THAT LINE OF WORK 1	THERE ARE NO JOBS OR I WAS NOT ABLE TO FIND ANY JOBS IN THAT LINE OF WORK
		I DID NOT WANT TO DO THAT KIND OF WORK 2	I DID NOT WANT TO DO THAT KIND OF WORK 2
		I WAS NOT ABLE TO DO THAT KIND OF WORK 3	WAS NOT ABLE TO DO THAT KIND OF WORK
		OTHER (SPECIFY) 4	OTHER (SPECIFY) 4
31.	Everything considered, what one thing (do/did) you like most about this program: PROBE FOR CLARITY ONLY. RECORD VERBATIM AND CODE ONE ONLY.		
		THE TRAINING ITSELF 01 THE STAFF/SUPERVISORS 02 THE OTHER STUDENTS/ CO-WORKERS 03	THE TRAINING ITSELF 01 THE STAFF/SUPERVISORS 02 THE OTHER STUDENTS/ CO-WORKERS 03
		THE PAY/MAKING MONEY 04 HAVING SOMETHING TO DO 05	THE PAY/MAKING MONEY 04 HAVING SOMETHING TO DO 05
		THE CHANCE TO LEARN 06 EVERYTHING 07	THE CHANCE TO LEARN 06 EVERYTHING 07
		NOTHING	NOTHING
		09	( " )

32. What one thing (do/did)
you dislike most about
this program? PROBE FOR
CLARITY ONLY.
RECORD VERBATIM AND CODE
ONE ONLY.

THE TRAINING ITSELF 01	THE TRAINING ITSELF 01
THE STAFF/SUPERVISORS 02	THE STAFF/SUPERVISORS 02
THE OTHER STUDENTS/	THE OTHER STUDENTS/
CO-WORKERS	CO-WORKERS 03
THE PAY 04	THE PAY 04
EVERYTHING05	EVERYTHING 05
NOTHING	NOTHING 06
OTHER (SPECIFY)	OTHER (SPECIFY)
07	07

33. Thinking back over
your entire experience
in this program, how
satisfied or dissatisfied are you with it
overall--very satisfied,
somewhat satisfied,
somewhat dissatisfied,
or very dissatisfied?

Very satisfied		1	Very satisfied	1
Somewhat satisfied	•	2	Somewhat satisfied	2
Somewhat dissatisfied	•	3	Somewhat dissatisfied	1
Very dissatisfied		4	Very dissatisfied	4

ANY ADDITIONAL PRO-GRAMS RECORDED IN COLUMN HEADINGS NOT YET ASKED ABOUT?

YES . . (CO BACK TO PAGE 120 AND ASK THE APPROPRIATE OUESTIONS FOR NEXT PROCRAM. . . 1

YES . . (GO BACK TO PAGE 130

AND ASK THE APPROPRIATE

QUESTIONS FOR NEXT PROGRAM. . . 1

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NO . . . (GO TO SECTION 14) . . . 2 NO . . . (GO TO SECTION 14) . . . 2

## SECTION 14 OTHER TRAINING

1.	INTERVIEWER: IS R
	14 OR 15 YEARS OLD (SKIP TO SECTION 15)
	16-22 YEARS OLD 2
2.	We've already talked about regular schooling, (the military,) jobs, and government-sponsored training programs. Now I would like to talk with you about other kinds of schooling and training.
	IF, SINCE JAN. 1, 1978, R WAS ENROLLED IN REGULAR SCHOOL, READ: Besides your regular schooling
	IF R WAS EVER IN THE MILITARY, READ: (and) Besides your military experience
٠	IF R HAD ANY GOVERNMENT-SPONSORED JOB OR TRAINING SINCE JAN. 1, 1978, READ: (and) Besides any training you received in a government-sponsored training
3A.	Since January 1, 1978, have you received training from any other source, such as the kinds of places listed on this card? (HAND CARD R) For example, training in a business college, nurses program, an apprenticeship program, a vocational-technical institute, or any of these other kinds of sources?
	Yes 1
	No(SKIP TO Q. 5) 2
3B.	Did you receive training from <u>any</u> of these sources for one month or more?
	Yes 1
	No(SKIP TO Q. 5) 2 $560$



5:

4. Now I would like to ask you some questions about each kind of training in which you were enrolle' for at least a month since Jsn. 1, 1978. (PAUSE) Let's begin with the most recent program in which you were enrolled.

•	1ST PROGRAM	2ND PROCRAM	3RD PROGRAM	
8. What job were you being trained for?				
b. HAND CARD R. Which category on this card best describes where you received this training				
<ol> <li>Business college</li> <li>A nurses program</li> <li>An apprentice-</li> </ol>	01 02	01 02	01 02	
ship program	03	03	03	
technical institute 5. Barber or beauty	04	04		
school 6. Flight school	05 06	05 06	05 06	
7. A correspondence course	07	07	07	
8. Company training program	08	08	08	
c. When did you start the training?	HONTH YEAR	   _ _ _    MONTH YEAR	I I I I I I NONTH YEAR	
d. When did you finish or leave the training? S				
e. Did you complete this training or not?	10 \$7	10 7)	. 10 })	
Completed training Did not complete tra	ining 2	1	1	
f. Now many hours per week (did/do) you usually spend				
IF APPRENTICESHIP: in all your apprentice ship activities?	ine.		•	
IF CORRESPONDENCE COUR				
1F OTHER: in this trai	ning?	111	111	
ENTER HOURS/WEEK:	i_i_i	i_i_i_i	iii	
g. Since Jan.1,1978, have you received for at le one month any other ki of training from one o	ast Yes.(GO F			
these sources?	No.(CO TO Q.5)			



5.	Before 1978, did you receive (any other) training for at least	
	one month from any of these kinds of sources?	

		1ST PROGRAM	2ND PROGRAM	3RD PROGRAM	
a.	What job were you			<del></del>	
	being trained for?				
ъ.	HAND CARD R. Which				
	category on this card				
	best describes where you	1			
	received this training?				
	l. Business college	01	01	01	
	2. A nurses program	02		02	
	3. An apprentice-				
	ship program	03	03	03	
	4. A vocational or				
	technical institute	04	04	04	
	<ol> <li>Barber or beauty</li> </ol>				
	school	05	05	05	
	6. Flight school	06	06	06	
	<ol> <li>A correspondence</li> </ol>				
	course	07	07	07	
	8. Company training			·	
	program	08	08	08	
с.	In what year did you	111	111	111	
	finish or leave the	 19  _	 19  <u>-</u>  _	 19	
	training?	·	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	• ''	
d.	Did you complete				
	this training or not?				
	Completed training	1	1	1	
	Did not complete train		2	2	
	pra not comprete train	11.16	•••• 2	•••• 2	
e.	Before 1978, did you				
	receive for at least	Yes.(GO )	BACK Yes.(GO F	BACK Yes.(GO TO	
	one month any other	TO a ABOV			1
	kind of training from				
	any of these souces?	No.(GO TO		No.(GO TO	
		0.6)	$2^{2}$ $(0.6)$	0.6)	2



6.	about,), have you	hool (and the train: ever participated fo training designed to ing a job?	or at	least one month	in
		Yes(A	SK A	& B)	1 .
		No(G	о то	q. 7)	2
	IF YES, ASK A & B:				
			В.	When did you parin this training months and year	gin what
				FROM	<u>T0</u>
	1.		<b>-</b>	   _ _ _  MONTH YEAR	   <u> </u>   <u> </u>  _  MONTH YEAR
	2		 	   _ _ _   MONTH YEAR	   _   _   MONTH YEAR
	3		_ _	 	   _ _  NONTH YEAR
	4.		_ 	 	 

ENTRI	ALENDAR, ROWS A AND B. ARE THERE ANY ES ON ANY OF THESE ROWS FOR LAST SUMMER- IS, FROM JUNE THROUGH AUGUST OF 1978?	<del></del>	SEC 14
	YES(GO TO Q.8)	. 1	
	NO(ASK A & B)	. 2	
do most of last	e a different question. What did you summer? I AND CODE ALL THAT APPLY.		
	VACATION	01	
	NOTHING, GOOFED AROUND, ETC	02	
	ODD JOBS	03	
	REGULAR JOB(GO BACK TO SECTION 10 AND REASK QUESTION SEQUENCE TO CORRECT ANY ERRORS)	04	
	TRAINING PROGRAM OR SPECIAL SCHOOL (GO BACK TO SECTION 13 OR SECTION 14 TO ENSURE YOU HAVE INFORMATION RECOR DED ABOUT THIS PROGRAM/SCHOOLING)	-	
	LOOKED FOR WORK	06	
	OTHER (SPECIFY)	07	
B. Were you at:	tending regular school at any time	e last	summer?
	Yes	. 1	
	N'a	2	

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			- 137-			
3.	for coll	example, an Associate ege degree, or any ty	y kind of degree or cer 's degree or any other of pe of certificate, licen acticing a profession or	tificate, type of nme, or	EC 14	
	Yes 1					
		No	.(GO TO Q. 9)	2		
	A. W t	ES, ASK A-E: That is the name of the (first/second, tc.) one you eceived?	(GO YO E) 1 BACHELORS DLOKEE. B(GO TO E) 2 MASTERS DEGREE. M(GO TO E) 3	SSOCIATES DECREE(CO TO E) 1 ACHELORS DECREE(GO TO E) 2 ASTERS DECREE(GO TO E) 3 THER (SPECIFY)	ASSOCIATES DEGREE. B(CO TO E) 1 BACHELORS DEGREE. B(GO TO E) 2 MASTERS DEGREE B(GO TO E) 3 OTHER (SPECIFY)	ASSOCIATES DECREE(CO TO E)
	a	s that a certificate, license, or a ourneyman's card?	certificatel license2 journeyman's card3 OTHER(SPECIFY AND GO TO D)	certificate1 license2 journeyman's card3 OTHER(SPECIFY AND GO TO D)	certificatel license2 journeyman's card3 OTHER(SPECIFY AND GO TO D)	certificatel license2 journeyman's card3 OTHER(SPECIFY AND CO TO D)
	C. I	s it still valid?	Yes1	Yes1	Yes1	Yes1
			No 2	No 2	No 2	No2
	t	For what profession of rade is that [certificate, license/journeyment eard/(other)]?	i-			
	У	In what month and year did you receive tt?	 	III III II II MONTH YEAR	I-I-I I-I-I I I I I I MONTH YEAR	 
	a 0 1	dave you ever obtained iny other degrees, certificates, licenses, or journeyman's cards?	d Yes(CO TO A FOR NEXT DEGREE CERTIFI- CATE) F.T)	Yes(GO TO A FOR NEXT \ CGGGG CERTIFI CATE) F.J. L1	Yes(GO TO A FOR NEXT CERTIFICATE)	Yes(GO TO Q. 9)1 €
			No(GO TO Q. 9)2	No(GO TO Q. 9)2	м(GO TO 9. 9)2 505	No(GO TO Q. 9)2
9.	Do y	you have a valid drive	er's license?		~	
		Yes	*	1		



1. A. INTERVIEWER, IS R 14-15 YEAR	S OLD(SKIP TO	SECTION 16)	1						
16-22 YEAR	s old	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	2						
PERIODS OF AT LEAST ONE LAST WEEK DURING WHICH MILITARY OR WORKING? (	B. INTERVIEWER, SEE ROWS A & B OF CALENDAR. ARE THERE ANY PERIODS OF AT LEAST ONE WEEK BETWEEN JAN.1, 1978 AND LAST WEEK DURING WHICH R. WAS NOT ON ACTIVE DUTY IN THE MILITARY OR WORKING? (IGNORE YELLOW LINES INDICATING PERIODS OF LAYOFF, ETC.)								
YES		••••••	i						
NO(SKIP	TO SECTION 16).	•••••	2						
IF ANY ENTRIES IN ROW A AND B READ Q. 2. OTHERWISE, CO TO INSTRUCTIONS FOR Q. 2A&B.  2. Now I am going to draw in some lines on ou calendar to show clearly those periods between Jan. 1, 1978 and now when you were not (in th	A. DATE r ENDED PERIOD	 	 	 	 	!··-[    	 		
military) (or) (working)		TO		, TO	, mo	<b>.</b>			
ZAÁB DRAW IN ON ROW C LINES TO REPRESENT PERIODS DURING WHICH R WAS NOT IN THE MILITARY OR WORKING. USE DATES ENTERED IN ROWS A & B TO INDICATE IN ROW C DATES R ENDED AND BEGAN EACH PERIOD OF NON-INVOLVEMEN USE WEEK # CALENDAR TO DETERMINE WEEK # OF EACH DATE. THEN TRANSFER THE TO COLUMN HEADINGS HERE, STARTING WITH THE MOST RECENT. SUBTRACT THE WEEK # IN B FROM THE WEE	T. SE		TO	TO	TO	TO	TO		
IN A AND ENTER THE DIFFE ENCE IN C.  IF MORE THAN 6 SUCH SETS OF DATES, ENTER THE 6 MO RECENT AND ENTER THE TOT NUMBER IN BOX HERE:	C. # OF WEEKS NOT ST WORKING AL (# IN A	   :     i     * OF   WEEKS		 	 	   1   1   1   1   1   1   1   1   1	 		
OFFICE USE:   I COMPLETE BOXES 2A-C FOR EACH PERIOD NOT WORKING BEFORE COING ON TO Q. 3.				<b>5</b> 86					

SEC 15

					- 5	7		
	ILL, DISABLED, UNABLE TO WORK FOR SCHOOL EMPLOYEES: SCHOOL WAS NOT IN SESSION FOR TO PERIOD. ARMED FORCES. PREGNANCY CHILD CARE PROBLEMS PERSONAL, FAMILY REASONS VACATION LABOR DISPUTE/STRIKE BELIEVED NO WORK AVAILABLE COULD NOT FIND WORK OTHER (SPECIFY)	02 DL HIS03040506060708091011		IF CODE 12 SPECIFY BELOW:	!!  '!!  2, IF CODE 12, SPECIFY BELOW:	IF CODE 12 SPECIFY BELOW:	!!! !!_! 2, IF CODE 12 SPECIFY BELOW:	IF CODE ! SPECIFY BELOW:
в.	WEEKS NOT WORKING (IN Q. 2C).  IF ZERO, ENTER "OO" AND GG BACK TO Q. 3A FOR NEXT PERI OF NOT WORKING OR GO TO SECTION 16.  FOR EACH NUMBER GREATER THAN ZERO, ASY B: That leaves (NUMBER OF WEEKS IN Q. 4A) that you were not working or looking for work. What would you say was the main reason that you were not looking for work during that period? RECORD VERBATIM AND ENTER CODE IN BOX.	· - - -						
4. A.	INTERVIEWER: SUBTRACT THE NUMBER OF WEEKS ON LAYOFF AND LOOKING FOR WORK (IN Q. 3A) FROM THE NUMBER OF	# IN 2C MINUS # IN 3A	   _	   _	i  	 	; -1 [_ 1 _ ;	!!! !!!
we fo fr	ring how many of these eks were you looking r work or on layoff om a job? ENTER IN PROPRIATE COLUMN.	NUMBER OF WEEKS LOOKING FOR WORK OR ON LAYOFF	     WEEKS	;    _   WEEKS	   _  WE EKS	MEEKS	III I_I_I WEEKS OFFICE USI	        
OTHE I	B 6 4 BEFORE GOING ON  VEXT:  : calendar (SHOW ROW C)  twist that you were not  tking from (DATE) to  VITE). That would be  put (NUMBER OF WEEKS FROM  (2C) weeks when you  te not working.							

### SECTION 16 ON HEALTH

1) INTERVIEWER: DID R HAVE A JOB LAST WEEK? (SEE EMPLOYER FLAP, COL. 1)
Yes (GO TO Q.2)
No 2
A. IF NO: Would your health keep you from working on a job for pay now?
Yes(GO TO Q.4)
No
2) A. Are you/Would you be) limited in the kind of work you (could) do on a job for pay because of your health?
Yes 1
No 2
B. (Are you/Would you be) limited in the <u>amount</u> of work you (could) do because of your health?
Yes 1
No 2
3) INTERVIEWER, SEE OS 2A & B. IS ANY "YES" ANSWER CODED IN THESE QUESTIONS?
YES 1
NO(SKIP TO SECTION 17) 2
4) Since what month and year have you had this limitation?  ENTER MONTH
OR IF VOLUNTEERED: All my life 0000

P	hat health condition causes you to be limited in work? PROBE: Does any other condition cause you to be limited on work? RECORD VERBATIM.	SEC
	CONDITION:	
6) ]	IF MORE THAN ONE CONDITION: Which of these health conditions would say is the main cause of your limitation in work? RECORD VERBATIM.	you
(II 7)	K Qs 7-16 ABOUT THE ONE (MAIN) CONDITION R HAS.  F "ALL MY LIFE" IN Q. 4, CIRCLE CODE O WITHOUT ASKING.)  And since what month and year have you had this condition?  ENTER MONTH       AND       YEAR 19   _   _    OR  IF VOLUNTEERED: All my life	
	EXAMINE "NAME OF CONDITION" AND BOX B AND CIRCLE APPROPRIATE CODE.  Accident or injury(GO TO Q.14) 01 In BOX B(GO TO Q.13) 02 Neither(GO TO Q.9) 03 Normal Pregnancy(GO TO NEXT SECTION) 04 Normal Delivery(GO TO NEXT SECTION) 05 Vasectomy/tubal ligation(GO TO NEXT SECTION) 06	

SEC 1

1		_'		
1		1		
-		1	Acne	Hernia (all types)
1		1	Appendicitis	Kidney stones
١		1	Arteriosclerosis	Laryngitis
1		1	Arthritis (any kind)	Migraine (any kind)
1		1	Athlete's foot	Mumps
-		1	Bronchitis	
1		1	Bunions	Phlebitis
١	В	1	Bursitis	(Thrombophlebitis)
1	0	1	Calluses	Pneumonia
1	X	1	Chickenpox	i
1		1	Cold	Sciatica
1	В	1	Corns	Sinus
1		1	Croup	Strep throat
1		1	Diabetes (all types)	(Streptococcus)
1		1	Epilepsy (any kind)	Tonsillitis
1		1	Gallstones	Ulcer (duodenal, stomach
1		1	Goiter	peptic or gastric only)
1		1	Hardening of the arteries	i
1		1	Hay fever	Warts
1		1	Hemorrhoids or piles	Whooping cough
1		1	(all kinds)	ļ
1_		_'	<del></del>	

IF "NO" IN Q.8, TRANSCRIBE (MAIN) CONDITION TO Q.9. OTHERWISE, ASK Q.9.

9) What did the doctor or other medical person say it was -- did he give it a medical name? RECORD VERBATIM.

## A. EXAMINE ANSWER TO Q.9 AND CIRCLE APPROPRIATE CODE:



B. IF NEITHER: What was the cause of (condition)? RECORD VERBATIM.

OR

IF VOL: Accident or injury . . (GO TO 0. 14). . . . . 01

## IF ENTRY IN Q.9 OR 9B INCLUDES ANY OF THE FOLLOWING WORDS, ASK Q.10.

AILMENT ATTACK DEFECT GROWTH TROUBLE ANEMIA CONDITION DISEASE MEASLES TUMOR ASTHMA CYST DISORDER RUPTURE ULCER

10) What kind of (WORD) is it? RECORD VERBATIM.

IF ALLERCY OR STROKE, ASK Q.11.
11) How does the (allergy/stroke) affect you? RECORD VERBATIM.

# IF IN Q'S. 9, 10, OR 11, THERE IS AN IMPAIRMENT, OR A PART OF THE BODY IS MENTIONED, OR ANY OF THE FOLLOWING ENTRIES, ASK Q.12.

ABSCESS ACHE (EXCEPT HEAD OR EAR) BLEEDING BLOOD CLOT	CANCER CRAMPS (EXCEPT MENSTRUAL) CYST DAMAGE	HEMORRHAGE INFECTION INFLAMMATION NEURALGIA NEURITIS	PALSY PARALYSIS RUPTURE SORE SORENESS	ULCER VARICOSE VEINS WEAK WEAKNESS
BOIL	GROWTH	PAIN	TUMOR	WEARINEOU

12) What part of the body is affected? RECORD VERBATIM.

PROBE IF NECESSARY: What specific part of the body is affected?

PROBE: Was any other part of the body affected?

13) When did you first notice the (CONDITION)?	SEC
ENTER MONTH	
OR	
IF VOLUNTEERED: Since birth	
IF VOL: DISCOVERED BY A DOCTOR OR OTHER MEDICAL PROVIDER (ASK A)02	
A. IF CODE 02: When was it discovered?	
ENTER MONTH           AND	
YEAR 19     GO TO NEXT SECTION)	
OR	
IF VOLUNTEERED: At birth	
IF "ACCIDENT OR INJURY," ASK Qs 14-16. OTHERWISE,  GO TO SECTION 17.  14) When did the accident or injury happen?	
ENTER MONTH	
AND     YEAR 19	
OR	
IF VOLUNTEERED: At birth 00	

15) At the time of the accident, what part of the body was hurt? RECORD IN A. What kind of injury was it? RECORD IN B. PROBE: What other part of the body was hurt?

A. Part(s) of body	B. Kind of injury
1	
! !	
1	i

IF ACCIDENT HAPPENED MORE THAN 3 MONTHS AGO (SEE Q. 14), ASK Q. 16.

16) What part of the body is affected now? RECORD IN A. How is (PERSON'S PART OF THE BODY) affected now? RECORD IN B. PROBE: Is any other part of the body affected now? RECORD VERBATIM.

A. Part(s) of body	B. Present Effects
_ii	



## SECTION 17 ON SIGNIFICANT OTHERS

1)	INTERVIEWER: HOW OLD IS THE RESPONDENT?
	14-17 YEARS OLD 1
	18-22 YEARS OLD (SKIP TO SECTION 18) 2
2)	We know that very often there are individuals in a person's life who influence how a person feels about things like school, marriage, jobs, and having children. Please take a look at this card. HAND CARD S. On it are listed different types of individuals who often influence how a person feels about such things. Who has influenced you the most on how you feel about things like school, marriage, jobs, and having children? CIRCLE ONE CODE BELOW.
	IF NECESSARY, PROBE: Take a minute to think about it. You may think of someone who has had an important influence on how you feel about such things.
	IF STILL NO ONE, SKIP
	TO SECTION 18 00
R R A A A R'	's father or stepfather
	A. IF CODE 14: How would you describe your relationship to this person? RECORD VERBATIM.
	<del></del>

3) We would like to ask you what your (RELATIONSHIP) would think if you decided to do certain things. For example, we would like to know what (he/she) would think if you decided to become a carpenter. We realize that you may have already decided to become a carpenter, or that you may never decide to become a carpenter. Still, we would like to know how (RELATIONSHIP) would probably feel if you made that decision.

HAND CARD T. If (READ CATEGORY A) would (he/she) strongly approve, somewhat approve, somewhat disapprove, or strongly disapprove?

REPEAT FOR CATEGORIES B-G.

	Strongly Approve	Somewhat Approve	Somewhat Disapprove	Strongly Disapprove	DON'T
A. You decided to be a carpenter	come 4	3	2	1	8
B. You decided to jo the armed forces	in 4	3	2	1	8
C. You decided to be accountant	come an 4	3	2	1	8
D. You decided to be an electrical eng		3	2	1	8
E. You decided not t to college	o go 4	3	2	1	8
F. You decided to mo far away from whe your (parent or p PARENT SUBSTITUTE live when you are	re arents/ ((S))	3	2	1	8
G. You decided never have children	to 4	3	2	1	8
H. ASK FEMALE R'S ON You decided to pu full time career delay starting a	rsue a and	3	2	1	8

	SECTION 18:	RESIDENCES
1.	INTERVIEWER	WAS R. ON ACTIVE DUTY IN THE ACTIVE FORCES AT ANY TIME SINCE JANUARY 1, 1978? (SEE ROW A, CALENDAR).
		YES(SKIP TO SECTION 19) 1
		NO 2
2.	INTERVIEWER	WAS THE HOUSEHOLD INTERVIEW CONDUCTED ON A VERSION A, B, OR C? CODE ONE ONLY.
		VERSION A (ASK A) 1
		VERSION B (ASK B) 2
		VERSION C (ASK C) 3
,	Since Jaguardian not courted	1: Sometimes young people leave home for a while.  an. 1, 1978, have you lived outside your (parent's/ n's) household for a period of one month or more, nting time spent away on vacations? [IF R WAS IN SINCE JAN. 1: Please do not forget to consider e spent away from home while you (were/have been) ege.]
		Yes (ASK Q. 3) 1
		No(SKIP TO SECTION 19) 2
	guardia: period	2: You are presently living away from your (parent's/n's) home. Since Jan. 1, 1978, has there been a of one month or more during which you lived at home or (parents/guardians)?
		Yes
		No(SKIP TO SECTION 19) 2
	NAME OF period	3: You are presently living in (your own place/ INSTITUTION). Since Jan. 1, 1978, has there been a of one month or more during which you lived with a or guardian?
		Yes
		No (SKIP TO SECTION 19) 2



IF YES TO 2A, 2B, OR 2C, ASK Q. 3. OTHERWISE, SKIP TO SECTION 19.

3. Please tell me about all of the periods during which you did live in your (parents'/guardian's) household.

ENTER BELOW EACH PERIOD DURING WHICH R LIVED WITH (PARENTS/ GUARDIANS), STARTING WITH THE FIRST SUCH PERIOD SINCE JAN. 1, 1978. IF MORE THAN FOUR SUCH PERIODS, ENTER THE TOTAL NUMBER HERE |--| AND TRANSFER THE FIRST FOUR SETS OF DATES TO BELOW-1\_\_\_1

	111	111	111	111	11!	
FROM	111	1_1_1	1911_1	TO	111	
	MO	DAY	YEAR	NO	DAI	ILAN

#### SECTION 19: ROTTER SCALE

1) We would like to find out whether people's outlook on life has any effect on the kind of jobs they have, the way they look for work, how much they work, and matters of that kind. On each of these cards is a pair of statements numbered 1 and 2. HAND RESPONDENT CARD BOOKLET 2.

For each pair, please select one statement which is closer to your opinion. In addition, tell me whether the statement you select is <u>much c'oser</u> to your opinion or <u>slightly closer</u>.

In some cases you may find that you believe both statements; in other cases you may believe neither one. Even when you feel this way about a pair of statements, select the one statement which is more nearly true in your opinion.

Try to consider each pair of statements separately when making your choices; do not be influenced by your previous choices.

INTERVIEWER: CODE A CHOICE FOR PAIR ONE, THEN ASK B. DO THE SAME FOR REMAINING PAIRS.

#### PAIR ONE:

OR

- B. ASK: Is this statement much closer or slightly closer to your opinion?

Much closer.....1

Slightly closer.....2

#### P. TR TWO:

OR

- (2). It is not always wise to plan too far ahead, because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune anyhow.....2
- B. ASK: Is this statement much closer or slightly closer to your opinion?

Much closer.....

Slightly closer.....2



PAIR THREE:
A (1). In my case, getting what I want
has little or nothing to do
with luckl
OR
(2). Many times we might just as well
decide what to do by flipping
a coin2
B. ASK: Is this statement much closer or
or slightly closer to your opinion?
Much closerl
Slightly closer2
PAIR FOUR:
A (1). Many times I feel that I have
little influence over the things
that happen to mel
OR
(2). It is impossible for me to
believe that chance or luck plays
an important role in my life
<u> </u>
B. ASK: Is this statement much closer or
slightly closer to your opinion?
Much closerl
Slightly closer2

?

#### SECTION 20 ON FAMILY ATTITUDES

l. We are interested in your opinion about loyment of wives. (HAND CARD U). I will read a of statements and after each one I would like to know wh you strongly agree, agree, disagree, or strongly disagree. (first/next) READ STATEMENT, do you strongly agree, agree, disagree, or strongly disagree?

		Strong: Agree	-	Dis- e agre		y UN- e DECIDED
а.	A woman's place is in the hom not in the office or shop.	ne, 4	3	2	1	8
b.	A wife who carries out her fu family responsibilities doesn have time for outside employ- ment.	ı't	3	2	1	8
с.	A working wife feels more use than one who doesn't hold a j		3	2	1	8
d.	The employment of wives leads to more juvenile delinquency.		3	2	1	8
e.	Employment of both parents is necessary to keep up with the high cost of living.		3	2	1	8
f.	It is much better for everyor concerned if the man is the achiever outside the home and the woman takes care of the home and family.		3	2	1	8
g.	Men should share the work around the house with women, such as doing dishes, cleaning and so forth.	4 1 <b>g</b> ,	3	2	1	8
h.	Women are much happier if they stay at home and take care of their children.	4	3	2	1	8



?

1.	Α.	INTERVIEWER: IS R CURRENTLY ON ACT OR HAS R SERVED IN THE MILITARY SIN SECTION 7, QS 13 & 15)	IVE DUTY TO SEE JAN. 1	IN THE MILITARY, 1978? (SEE			
		YES(ASK	в)	1			
		NO(GO TO	c)	2			
	В.	During 1978, how much total income did you receive from the military before taxes and other deductions? Please include money received from special pays, allowances, and bonuses.					
		 	1   -  ,  _	-11 _11 •00			
		   NOW SKIP TO Q.1D   					
	C.	INTERVIEWER: CODE YES OR NO FOR EA	CH ITEM:				
		·	YES	NO			
		AS R EVER HAD A CHILD? SEE SECTION 3, Q.2)	1	2			
		S R AGE 18 OR OLDER? SEE SECTION 1, Q.1B)	1	2			
	_	S R ENROLLED IN COLLEGE? SEE SECTION 4, Q.24)	1	2			
		OES R LIVE OUTSIDE PARENTAL HOME? HH WITH A VERSION B OR C)	1	2			
		AS R EVER BEEN MARRIED? SEE SECTION 2, Q.1)	1	2			
INT	ERVI	EWER: IF ALL ANSWERS ARE "NO," SKIP IF ANY ANSWER IS "YES," ANSWE	TO Q.24.				

D. INTERVIEWER: IS R "PRESENTLY MARRIED" AND IS R'S SPOUSE LISTED ON THE HOUSEHOLD ENUMERATION?

YES ... (ASK BOTH A & B FOR

NO ... (ASK A ONLY FOR QS 2-4). 2



2.	Now I would like to ask you s in 1978 (IF R IS CURRENTLY ON HAS SERVED IN THE MILITARY SI any money you received from y	ome questions about your income ACTIVE DUTY IN THE MILITARY OR	SEC
	A. During 1978, how much did you receive from wages, salary, commissions, or tips from all jobs, before deductions for taxes or anything else?	B. During 1978, how much did your (husband/wife) receive from wages, salary, commissions, or tips, from all jobs, before deductions for taxes or anything else?	
	 \$  _  ,   _ _00 OR	 \$  _  ,   _ .00	
	NONE000000	OR NONE	
		DON'T KNOW999998	
3.	A. During 1973, did you receive any money in income	B.(In addition to the income you received from such sources), during 1978 did your (husband/wife) receive any money in income	
	1) from your own farm?	<pre>l) from (his/her) own farm?</pre>	
	Yes 1 No 2	Yes 1 No	
	2) from your own nonfarm business, partnership or professional practice?	<ol> <li>from (his /her) own nonfarm business, partnership or professional practice?</li> </ol>	
	Yes 1 No 2	Yes 1 No	
	IF BOTH (1) and (2) ARE CODED "NO," GO TO Q.3B OR TO Q. 4.	IF BOTH (1) AND (2) ARE CODED "NO" OR "D.K.," GO TO Q.4.	
	1. IF YES: How much did you receive after expenses?	1. IF YES: How much did (he/she) receive after expenses?	
	\$     ,     .00		
	OR NONE000000	OR NONE000000	
	DON'T KNOW999998	DON'T KNOW999998	

- 155-					
4. A. During 1978, did you receive any unemployment compensation?	B. During 1978, did (your husband wife/partner) receive any unemployment compensation?				
Yes(ASK 1-3)1	Yes(ASK 1-3)1				
No(GO TO B OR TO Q.5)2	No(GO TO Q. 5)2				
	DON'T KNOW.(GO TO Q.5)8				
IF YES, ASK 1-3: SHOW R CALENDAR  1. In which months of 1978 did you receive unemployment compensation? CODE ALL THAT APPLY.  JANUARY	IF YES, ASK 1-3: SHOW R CALENDAR  1. In which months of 1978 did your (husband/wife) receive unemployment compensation? CODE ALL THAT APPLY. JANUARY 01 FEBRUARY 02 MARCH 03 APRIL 04 MAY 05 JUNE 06 JULY 07				
JULY 07 AUGUST 08 SEPTEMBER 09 OCTOBER 10 NOVEMBER 11 DECEMBER 12	AUGUST 08 SEPTEMBER 09 OCTOBER 10 NOVEMBER 11 DECEMBER 12 OR DON'T KNOW98				
2. During how many weeks in 1978 did you receive unemployment compensation?	<ol> <li>During how many weeks in 1978 did your (HUSBAND/ WIFE) receive unemployment compensation?</li> </ol>				
	   WEEKS   _				
	OR				
	DON'T KNOW98				
3. How much did you receive	3. How much did (he/she)				
per week on the average?	receive per week on the average?				
 	      ,   _ _ .00				

DON'T KNOW..9998

5.	INTERVIEWER: HAS RESPONDENT EVER HAD A CHILD? (SEE SECTION 3, Q.2)
	YES
	A. IF YES: During 1978, did you receive any money from someone living outside this household for alimony or child support?
	Yes(ASK B)
	B. IF YES TO A: How much did you receive in 1978 for alimony or child support?
	 \$   ,   _  .00
6.	INTERVIEWER: IF ANYONE OTHER THAN R'S SPOUSE AND CHILDREN IS LISTED IN HOUSEHOLD ENUMERATION, READ BELOW. OTHERWISE, GO TO A.
	For these next few questions, we are interested in different kinds of payments that might have been made directly to you [or your (husband/wife)]. For these questions, please do not include any payments that were made to your parents or to other members of your family, even if the payments were used to help pay for your support.
	A. During 1978, did you for your ()
	A. During 1978, did you [or your (husband/wife)] receive any payments from Aid to Families with Dependent ChildrenAFDC?
	Yes(ASK B & C)
	replaced from Aid to ramilles with Dependent ChildrenAFDC?
	Yes(ASK B & C)



During 1978, did you [or your (husband/wife)] buy or receive any food stamps under the government's Food Stamp Plan?
Yes(ASK A-C)1
No(GO TO Q. 8)2
IF YES, ASK A-C:  A. In which months of 1978 did you [or your (husband/wife)] buy or receive food stamps? CODE ALL THAT APPLY.
JANUARY
B. How much did you [or your (husband/wife)] pay for the food stamps you bought or received during (MOST RECENT MONTH CODED IN A)?
 \$   _  00 OR RECEIVED FREE
C. How many dollars worth of food would these food stamps buy?       \$   _   _   .00 OR DON'T KNOW

7.

(Besides the AFDC [and] food stamps), During 1978 did you [or your (husband/wife)] receive any Supplemental Security Income or any other public assistance or welfare payments from the local, state, or federal government?	SEC
Yes(ASK A-C)1	
No(GO TO Q. 9)2	
IF YES, ASK A-C:  A. From what sources did you receive these payments? CODE ALL THAT APPLY.	
Supplemental Security Income	
OTHER (SPECIFY)2	
B. In which months of 1978 did you [or your (husband/wife)] receive these payments? CODE ALL THAT APPLY.	
JANUARY	
C. And how much did you [or your (husband/wife)] receive per month, on the average, during 1978?	
 \$  _ .00 OR DON'T KNOW	



8.

		_	159_	SEC	21
9.	Α.		[or your (husband/wife)] receive any		
			for veterans under the G.I. Bill or		
		Yes			
		No			
	~	December 1070 111	[	. (	
	В.		[or your (husband/wife)] receive any	/ (other	
		kinds of scholarshi	s, fellowship, or grants?		
		Ves			
		res			
		No			
		•	-		
	С.	INTERVIEWER: IS Q.	OA AND/OR Q. 9B ANSWERED "YES"?		
		YES			
		NO	(SKIP TO 0. 11) 2		
				<b></b>	
			CIRCLE CODE "1" IN O. 10 WITHOUT ASK	ING:	
10.		received these bener h of you?	ltsyou, your (husband/wife), or		
	DOL	n or you:			
		Responden	only (ASK A ONLY) 1		
		ne o ponden			
		HUSBAND/W	IFE ONLY (ASK B ONLY) 2		
		·	·		
		Responden	t & husband/wife(ASK A & B) 3		
	Α.	RESPONDENT: What was			
		was the total dollar	dollar value of the assis-		
		value of the assis-	tance your (husband/wife)		
		tance you received	received from these		
		from these sources	sources during 1978?		
		during 1978?	111 111		
	<b>~</b>		 		
	\$				
		''' '''	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		
		OR	OR		
		DON'T KNOW99998	DON'T KNOW99998	,	

SEC 21

11.	INTERVIEWER: DID R RECEIVE MONEY FOR ALIMONY OR CHILD SUPPORT?  (SEE Q.5A)
	YES (READ A) 1
	NO (GO TO Q. 12) . 2
	A. IF YES, READ: Besides the alimony or child support you have already told me about (CONTINUE Q. 12)
12.	[(and) besides the scholarship, fellowship, or grant you have already told me about,] During 1978
	IF R LIVES IN DU: did you [or your (husband/wife)] regularly receive any money from persons living outside this household?
	IF R LIVES IN A DORM, ,  FRATERNITY, OR SORORITY: did you [or your (husband/wife)] regularly receive any money from persons living outside your home in (CITY OF PERMANENT RESIDENCE)?
	TF R LIVES IN  A MILITARY BARRACK: did you regularly receive any money from any person?
	Yes (ASK A) 1
	No 2
	A. IF YES: Now much did you receive from this source during 1978?
	OR
	DON'T KNOW99998



HAND	CARD V 161 -						
13.	Aside from the things you have already told me about, during						
	1978, did you [or your (husband/wife)] receive any money from						
	any other sources such as the ones on this card? For example: things like interest on savings, payments from Social Security, net rental income, or any other regular						
	or periodic sources of income?						
	(IF R IS IN THE MILITARY SINCE JAN. 1, 1978: Again, please do not include any income from your military service.)						
	Yes 1						
	No 2						
	A. IF YES: Altogether, how much did you [or your (husband/						
	wife)] receive from these sources during 1978?						
	\$						
	111 , 111.00						
	OR						
	DON'T KNOW99998						
14.	INTERVIEWER: DID YOU DO THE HOUSEHOLD ENUMERATION WITH A						
	VERSION A(SKIP TO Q. 18)						
	VERSION B(SKIP TO Q. 18)						
	VERSION C						
15.	INTERVIEWER: DOES RESPONDENT LIVE WITH ANY RELATIVES OTHER THAN RESPONDENT'S SPOUSE AND CHILDREN?						
	YES 1						
	NO 2						
	A. INTERVIEWER: DOES RESPONDENT CURRENTLY LIVE WITH ONE OTHER ADULT, OF THE OPPOSITE SEX, WHO IS NOT RELATED TO THE RESPONDENT?						
	YES 1						



NO ......(SKIP TO Q. 18)...... 2

16. These next few questions are about the income received during 1978 by the other persons who live here who are related to you—that is, (READ NAMES OF ALL PERSONS IN HOUSEHOLD OTHER THAN RESPONDENT'S SPOUSE AND CHILDREN WHO ARE RELATED TO RESPONDENT).

A. During 1978, did any of these persons receive (READ CATEGORIES) AND CODE "YES" OR "NO" FOR EACH:

		<u>Ye s</u>	No	DON'T KNOW
1)	income from a full or part-time job?	1	2	8
2)	net income from their own farm?	1	2	8
3)	net income from their own nonfarm business, partnership or professional practice?	1	2	8
4)	payments from Aid to Families with Dependent Children? Please include any payments which these persons may have received to help pay for your (or your husband's/wife's support).	1	2	8
5)	Supplemental Security Income, or any other public assistance or welfare from the local state, or federal government?	, 1	2	8
6)	unemployment compen- sation or workmen's compensation?	1	2	8
7)	income from Social Security or pensions?	1	2	.8
8)	income from any other regular or periodic sources?	1	2	8



B. INTERVIEWER: IS ANY ITEM IN (A) CODED "YES" ('1')?	SEC	21
YES(ASK C)		
IF YES TO B, ASK C:  C. Counting the income from all of these sources—that is, (READ ALL SOURCES CODED "YES" ABOVE IN A), what was the total income received by (READ NAMES OF ADULTS OTHER THAN SPOUSE AND CHILDREN WHO ARE RELATED TO RESPONDENT) during 1978 — before taxes and other deductions?		
OR DON'T KNOW999998		
NOW SKIP TO Q. 18		

17. During 1978, did (READ NAME OF THE ONE PERSON OF THE OPPOSITE SEX SEC 21 ON HH ENUMERATION) receive (READ CATEGORIES) AND CODE "YES" OR "NO" FOR EACH:

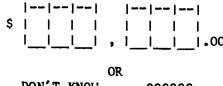
		Yes	<u>No</u>	DON'T KNOW
1)	income from a full or part-time job?	1	2	8
2)	net income from his/ her own farm?	1	2	8
3)	net income from his/her own nonfarm business, partnership or professional practice?	1	2	8
4)	payments from Aid to Families with Dependent Children?	1	. 2	8
5)	Supplemental Security Income, or any other public assistance or welfare from the local, state, or federal government?	1	2	8
6)	unemployment compen- sation or workmen's compensation?	1	2	8
7)	income from Social Security or pensions?	1	2	8
8)	income from any other regular or periodic sources?	1	2	8
INT	ERVIEWER: IS ANY ITEM IN		_	
	YES	.(ASK C)	• • • • • •	1

В.

YES	(ASK C)	1
	(GO TO Q. 18)	

IF YES TO B, ASK C:

C. Counting the income from all of these sources—that is, (READ ALL SOURCES CODED "YES" ABOVE IN A), what was the total income received by (READ NAME) during 1978before taxes and other deductions?



DON'T KNOW.....999998

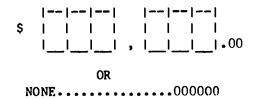
18.	During 1978, did anyone [other than your (husband/wife)] SEC 2 pay at least half of your living expenses?
٠	Yes 1 No(GO TO Q. 19) 2
	A. IF R LIVES IN A MILITARY BARRACK, GO TO C.
	B. Does this person live (here in this household/in your home at [CITY OF PERMANENT RESIDENCE])?
	Yes(GO TO Q. 19) 1 No 2
	C. What is that person's relationship to you?
	RELATIONSHIP TO RESPONDENT:
	D. During 1978, what was the total income of (SOURCE OF SUPPORT) and all family members living with (him/her) before taxes or other deductions?              \$
	OR
	DON'T KNOW999998
19.	Do you pay at least half of the living expenses of any person other than yourself (and your husband/wife)?
	Yes (ASK A)
	A. IF YES: How many persons are dependent upon you for at least one-half of their support?
	NUMBER OF DEPENDENTS

<b>2</b> 0.	INTERVIEWER: DID YOU DO A HOUSEHOLD ENUMERATION WITH A
	VERSION B
	VERSION A OR C(GO TO C) 2
	A. INTERVIEWER: IF R IS LIVING IN A MILITARY BARRACK,  CODE HERE. OTHERWISE, GO TO B.
	R IS "PRESENTLY MARRIED" (GO TO B) 1
	R IS NOT "PRESENTLY MARRIED" .(GO TO D) 2
•	B. IF VERSION B: Do any of these dependents live somewhere other than at your home in (CITY OF PERMANENT RESIDENCE)?
	Yes
	C. IF VERSION A OR C: Do any of these dependents live somewhere other than here at home with you?
	Yes
	IF YES TO B OR C, ASK D:  D. These dependents (who live away from your home)what is their relationship to you? ENTER SPECIFIC RELATIONSHIP (e.g., SON, NEPHEW, DAUGHTER-IN-LAW) OR "NOT RELATED."
	RELATIONSHIP
	<u> </u>
	<del></del>
	<del></del>
HAND 21.	CARD W.  Do you [or your (husband/wife)] have any money set aside for savings—such as money you keep in a safe place at home, or in a savings or checking account, or U.S Savings Bonds, or any other money set aside for savings?
	Yes1 No2
22.	Do you (or your husband/wife) personally own, or are you making payments on any cars, vans or trucks?
	Yes1 No2
	LIVES IN DORM OR BARRACKS, SKIP TO SECTION 22.
	Is this (house/apartment) owned or being bought in your name [or in your (husband's/wife's) name]?
	Yes(SKIP TO SECTION 22) $\overset{5}{1}$

ERIC Full Text Provided by ERIC

24. Now I would like to ask you a few questions about your income in 1978.

During 1978, how much did you receive from wages, salary, commissions, or tips from all jobs, before deductions for taxes or anything else?



25. During 1978, did you receive:

Α.	Income from working on your own or in your own business	Yes	<u>No</u>
	or farm?	1	2
В.	Unemployment compensation?	1	2
С.	Workers' compensation or any outer disability payments?	1	2
D.	Interest on savings or any other income you received regularly or periodically?		

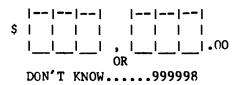
26. INTERVIEWER: IS ANY ITEM CODED "YES" IN Q. 25?

Do <u>not</u> count allowances from your parents.

YES			(	( ASI	( A )	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	]
NO .		.(	GO	TO	Q.	2	7)											2

2

A. IF YES: Counting the income from all of these sources—that is, (READ ALL SOURCES CODED "YES" ABOVE IN Q. 25), what was the total income you received during 1978?



27. A. During any part of 1978, did you (IF R LIVES WITH RELATIVES: and your family) live in public housing?

Yes	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•		•		•	•	1
No																										2

B. During any part of 1978, did you (IF R LIVES WITH RELATIVES: and your family) receive a rent subsidy or a lower rent because the federal, state, or local government was paying a part of the cost?

What would you RECORD VERBATING IF R SAYS "WOR! like to be doing	te to talk with you about your future plans. like to be doing when you are 35 years old? AND CODE ONE ONLY.  KINC," PROBE: What kind of work would you are when you are 35 years old?
	E THAN ONE OCCUPATION, PROBE: Which of these uld you prefer?
   CODE	IF VOLUNTEERED: SAME AS PRESENT JOB(SKIP TO 0. 4). 1
SMALLEST	OR.
NUMBER I	OCCUPATION:
MENTIONED	(GO TO Q. 3) 2
11	OR
•	MARRIED, OR KEEPING HOUSE, OR
•.	RAISING A FAMILY (ASK Q. 2). 3
	OR OTHER (SPECIFY AND ASK A)
	OTHER (SIECIFI AND ASK A)
	OR
	DON'T KNOW(SKIP TO Q. 4). 8
A. IF OTHER: you prefer	If you were to work, what kind of work woul?
11	IF VOLUNTEERED: SAME AS
CODE	PRESENT JOB (SKIP TO Q. 4). 1
SMALLEST	OR
NUMBER	OCCUPATION:
MENTIONED	(GO TO Q. 3) 2
	OR DO NOT PLAN TO WORK(SKIP
	TO Q. 4)
	OR
	DON'T KNOW(SKIP TO Q. 4) 8
	ASK Q.2: to be working in addition to (being married raising a family)?
rechill manet	_
	Yes 1
	No



A. IF YES: What occupation would you like to be working in when you are 35 years old? RECORD VERBATIM.
NOW GO TO Q.3
B. IF NO: Sometimes (women/people) decide to work in a job after they have been married for a while. If you were to work, what kind of work would you prefer? CODE ONE ONLY.
IF VOLUNTEERED: SAME AS PRESENT JOB(SKIP TO Q. 4). 1
OR
OCCUPATION:2
OR DON'T PLAN TO WORK(SKIP TO Q. 4)4 OR
DON'T KNOW(SKIP TO Q. 4). 8
What do you think your chances are of getting into this type of work? Do you think they are excellent, good, fair or poor?
Excellentl
Good2
Fair3
Poor4

3.

4.	Suppose at age 35 that you and your (husband/wife) [IF NOT PRESENTLY MARRIED: if you are married,] could not earn enough money by working to support your family; please tell me whether you probably would or probably would not do each of the following things. (First/Nows) (NEWS)
	do each of the following things. (First/Next) (READ CATEGORY)would you probably do that or probably not do that?

		Probably would do that	Probably would not do that	DON'T KNOW
	<ul> <li>a. Get more education if you were paid enough to live on while</li> </ul>			
	learning	1	2	8
	b. Go on welfare	1	2	8
	c. Enter a job-training program if you were paid enough to live or while in training.	l 1	2	8
	d. Apply for food stamps	1	2	8
	e. Shoplift	1	2	8
5.	If, by some chance, you [ get enough money to live do you think you would wo	comfortably	nusband/wife) without wor	)] were to
		Yes	•••••	1
		No	••••••	2
6.	INTERVIEWER: HAS RESPONDE (CODES 1-4 IN Q. 1, SECTION	NT EVER BEE	N MARRIED?	
	YES(SKIP	το ϙ. 9)	••1 ••2	
7.	Do you expect to be marrie	ed 5 years	from now?	
		Yes	• • • • • • • • • • • •	•••••1



SEC 22

	- 171 -	
8.	At what age would you like to marry? [PROBE IF NECESSARY:	
	when you are (less than 20,) age 20 through 24, age 25	
	through 29, age 30 or older, or never?]	
	Less than 20	
	Age 20 to 242	
	Age 25 to 293	
	Age 30 or older4	
	Never5	
9.	Do you expect to be in school 5 years from now?	
•		
	Yes1	
*	No2	
	DON'T KNOW8	
10.	Do you expect to be working in a job 5 years	
10.	from now?	
	Yes(ASK A)1	
	No(ASK B)2	
	DON'T KNOW(ASK B)8	
	DOM I WAOM *** ( YOK D) *****	
	think you rould be doing?	
	A. IF YES: What kind of work do you think you would be doing?	
	CODE ONE ONLY. IF MORE THAN ONE OCCUPATION, PROBLE	
	What one kind of work do you think you would prefer?	
	<del></del>	
	IF VOLUNTEERED: SAME AS PRESENT JOB990	
	OR	
	OCCUPATION:	
	OR DON'T KNOW 998	
	DON'T KNOW	
	B. IF NO: If you were to work, what kind of work would	
	you prefer?	
	OCCUPATION:	
	OCCUPATION:	
REC	CORD TIME ENDED	
	AM I	
	PM	
	i l	
	' <u></u> '	
TE	THERE WERE ANY INTERRUPTIONS OF 5 MINUTES OR MORE	
Tr	ENTER LENGTH OF INTERRUPTION HERE:	
	ENTER BENGTH OF ZHILDHAM	
	MINUTES	
	HAMOLOG	

NOW GO TO LOCATING INFORMATION SUPPLEMENT.

## INTERVIEWER REMARKS

INTERVIEWER: Complete the questionnain	nese remarks as soon as you have finished the
l. Length of the intervi	Minutes
2. Date of Interview	Mo Day
3. Race of Respondent	
	White 1
	Black 2
	Other 3
4. In general, what was	the respondent's attitude toward the interview?
	Friendly and interested 1
	Cooperative but not particularly interested 2
	Impatient and restless 3
	Hostile 4
5. In general, was the re	espondent's understanding of the questions
	Good? 1
	Fair? 2
	Poor? 3



# - 173-

6.	Was anyone else present during an	y portion of the youth's interview
		Yes (ANSWER A) 1 No (GO TO Q. 7) 2
	A. IF YES: Who was present? CO	DE ALL TRAT APPLY.
		R's parent(s) 1
		Other member(s) of R's household 2
		R's friend(s)
		Other .(SPECIFY)
7.	Please record your interviewer I.	D.
۵	Please sign your name here:	

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

		$\subseteq$					• 6030 SOUTH ELLIS • CHICAGO, IL 60637 • 124753-1300 kC- 4270 LABOR FORCE BEHAVIOR OMB #: 44R-1671
			USEHOLD NDUCT HO PAREN	Fnalish 1			
							R for HH Enumeration:
					RECOR	D OF C	ALLS
TRY	DAY  M 1 F.  Tu 2 Sa  W 3 Su.  Th 4	монтн	DATE	TIME Pro 3	TYPE Per, 1 Tel. 2	OUT- COME	COMMENTS INTU
01		1 1					
02			1				
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### INTRODUCTION

Hello, I'm from the National Opinion Research Center at the University of Chicago. (SHOW ID) May I please speak with (PARENT OF YOUTH RESPONDENT)?

WHEN PARENT IS CONTACTED, REPEAT 17 NECESSARY: THEN READ:

As you may remember, a few months ago one of our representatives interviewed someone here about your household. After that interview, (YOUTH RESPONDENT) was selected by chance to take part in a survey of young people we are doing for the Department of Labor. You may have received a letter (I have a letter here; HAND RESPONDENT LETTER AND BROCHURE) which tells you about the study. It is being done in this area and in many other areas throughout the country. The purpose of the study is to find better ways to help young people make good decisions about their future.

First, what is your complete mailing address? (PROBE ALSO FOR COUNTY AND RECORD ADDRESS IN BOX A ON FACE SHEET)

A. Please tell me, does (YOUTH) still live at this address?

Yes .... (GO TO C) .... 1 No ..... (ASK B) ..... 2

B. IF NO: Do you expect (him/her) to return to live at this address within the next month?

Moved permanently .. ([a] ASK FOR AND RECORD NEW ADDRESS IN BOX B
ON FACE SHEET; PROBE ALSO FOR COUNTY;

- [b] THANK R AND END VISIT;
- [c] REPORT NEW ADDRESS TO OFFICE).
- Away temporarily ... ([a] ASK AND RECORD NEW TEMPORARY ADDRESS IN BOX B ON FACE SHEET; PROBE ALSO FOR COUNTY
  - [b] CONTINUE HH INTERVIEW WITH PARENT)
- C. Now, I'd like to tell you a little more about the study and ask you a few questions about the members of your household. Then, with your permission, I would like to speak with (YOUTH) to ask (him/her) to participate in our study. And to express our appreciation for (his/her) participation, I would like to give (YOUTH) \$5 at the end of the interview.

This survey will collect information from young people themselves about their education and any work experience they may have had. Through this survey we hope to find answers to such questions as what kind of training really helps to get a good job; how effective are job training programs, and how family life influences a person's decision about jobs.

READ TO FARENT: Your participation in this survey is completely voluntary, but we would appreciate it if you would take a few minutes to answer some questions about the members of this household. All information you give will be protected under the Privacy Act of 1974. Your answers will be kept confidential, and the results of the study will be made public only in summary forms, so that individuals who participate cannot be identified.

As I hentioned earlier, before talking with (YOUTH), I'd like to ask you a few questions about the persons who live here in this household.



# RECORD QS. 1-10 ON THE HOUSEHOLD ENUMERATION ON THE FACE SHEET

FOR RESPONDENT WHO IS CURRENTLY LIVING AT ADDRESS WHERE HE WAS SCREENED	FOR RESPONDENT WHO HAS MOVED IN WITH (OTHER) PARENT/PARENT SUBSTITUTE SINCE HE WAS SCREENED
I have listed as living in your household (READ NAMES).	<ol> <li>First, may I please have the full name of the person who rents or owns this home? (Are you/is PERSON)</li> </ol>
Have I missed	currently living or staying here?
ADD OTHER PERSONS ON NEXT AVAILABLE LINES AS THEY ARE NAMED BY THE RESPONDENT.	IF YES: ENTER FULL NAME OF HOUSEHOLDER ON FIRST EMPTY LINE OF HOUSEHOLD ENUMERATION. ADD OTHER PERSONS ON NEXT AVAILABLE LINES AS THEY ARE NAMED BY RESPONDENT.
1. Any babies or small children?	
Yes (ASK A) 1	<ol> <li>Next, I would like the names of all the other persons who live here, or who usually stay here. Let's start with the persons who are related to HOUSEHOLDER.</li> </ol>
No 2	
A. IF YES: May I please have their full names?	First, (do you/does HOUSEHOLDER) have a (husband/ wife) living in this household?
<ol><li>Any lodgers, boarders, or persons in your employ who live here?</li></ol>	Yes (ASK A) 1 No 2
Yes (ASK A) 1	A. IF YES: May I have (his/her) full name?
No 2	
A. IF YES: May I please have their full names?	Next, (your/his/her) children who live here.  IF CHILDREN: May I have their full names?
3. Anyone who usually lives here but is away at present traveling, at school, or in a hospital?	Now any other persons living here who are related to HOUSEHOLDER?
Yes (ASK A) 1	IF OTHERS: May I have their full names?
No 2	3. Are there any persons who usually stay here who are not related to HOUSEHOLDER?
A. IF YES: May I please have their full names?	Yes (ASK A) 1
4. Anyone else staying here?	No 2
Yes (ASK A) 1	A. IF YES: May I have their full names?
No 2	4A. Have I missed anyone, such as new babies or small
A. IF YES: May I please have their full names?	children, roomers or boarders or other relatives staying here?
5. I have (READ LIST NAMES) listed as living here.	Yes (ASK A) 1 No 2
Do any of these persons have a usual residence somewhere else?	NO 2
THE UPC. IN to show 2 Inc. also 2	A. IF YES: May I have their full names?
A. IF YES: Who is that? Who else?  CROSS OUT NAMES IN HOUSEHOLD ENUMERATION.	4B. Are there any other persons who usually stay here but who are away now, on vacation, or a business trip, at school, or in the hospital?
	Yes (ASK A) 1 No 2
	A. IF YES: May I have their full names?
	5. I have (READ LIST OF NAMES) listed as living here. Do any of these people have a usual residence somewhere else?
	Yes (ASK A) 1 No 2
	A. IF YES: Who is that? Who else?

# ASK Q'S 6-10 FOR EACH PERSON BEFORE GOING TO Q. 11.

- 6. IF NOT OBVIOUS, ASK SEX.
- 7. FOR EACH PERSON (EXCEPT YOUTH RESPONDENT), ISK: What is (your/PERSON'S) relationship to (YOUTH RESPONDENT)?
- 5. FOR EACH PERSON, ASK: What was (your/PERSON'S) age on (your/his/her) last birthday?
- 3. FOR AGE 5 OR OLDER, ASK: What was the highest grade or year of regular school (you/PERSON) (have/has) ever completed?
- :0. FOR AGE 14 OR OLDER, ASK: At any time in 1978, did (you/PERSON) work either full or part time -- not counting work around the house?

These next questions are about sources from which members of your family may have received income in 1973. HAND CARD 1.

As I read each item on this card, please tell me whether or not (YOUTH RESPONDENT) or any member of this household who is related to (YOUTH RESPONDENT) received income from that source in 1978.

		Yes	No
a.	Net income from your own business, farm, or professional practice.	. 1	2
٥.	lips, commissions, bonuses	. 1	2
c.	Social Security, railroad retirement	. 1	2
d.	Supplemental Security Income	. 1	2
٠.	Public assistance or welfare	. 1	2
f.	Veterans benefits	. :	2
3.	Cnemployment compensation	. i	2
ħ.	Interest or dividends	•	5
i.	Government or private pension or annuities	• •	2
j.	Net rental income	• •	2
₹.	Alimony or child support	• •	2
1.	Other contributions of money from friends or relatives		2
	living outside this household	. 1	2

.2. Counting the income from all sources you have mentioned, that is, income from
--the work done by (READ NAMES OF ALL PERSONS CODED "YES" IN Q. 10 WHO ARE RELATED TO YOUTH RESPONDENT)
--and from (READ ALL ITEMS CODED "YES" IN Q. 11)

what was the total income for (YOUTH RESPONDENT) and the members of this household who are related to TOUTH RESPONDENT) in 1978--before taxes or other deductions?
If PERSON OPERATED HIS/HER OWN FARM, OR NONFARM BUSINESS, PARTNERSHIP, OR PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE, INCLUDE ONLY NET INCOME, THAT IS, GROSS INCOME MINUS EXPENSES.)



. INTERVIEWER: IS YOUTH RESPONDENT UNDER AGE 18?

3. IF 173: Thank you very much. These are all the questions I have about the household members other than (YOUTH). Before asking (him/her) to participate in our study, however. we would like to make sure that we have your permission to do so. (HAND RESPONDENT PERMISSION FORM.) This form describes the study we will be asking YOUTH to take part in. Would you please read it over and then, if you're willing to allow YOUTH to participate, sign it at the bottom? If you have any questions at all about the study, I'd be happy to answer them for you. WHEN PERMISSION IS SIGNED:

- a) GIVE ONE COPY TO PARENT, GUARDIAN
- b) PLACE REMAINING COPIES IN YOUR FOLDER
- c) THANK PARENT/GUARDIAN
- d) CONTACT YOUTH RESPONDENT AND BEGIN MAIN QU'ESTIONNAIRE

CONTACT YOUTH RESPONDENT AND BEGIN MAIN QUESTIONNAIRE



<sup>.</sup> Thank you very much for your help. These are all the questions I have about the household members other than TOTTH. Now, if I may, I'd like to speak with YOUTH to ask (him/her) to participate in the next part of the incerview.